

The History Teacher's Magazine

EDITED UNDER THE SUPERVISION OF A COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

Volume VII.
Number 7.

PHILADELPHIA, SEPTEMBER, 1916.

\$2.00 a year.
20 cents a copy.

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Published monthly, except July and August, by McKinley Publishing Co., Philadelphia, Pa.

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Teaching the History of the New South

BY PROFESSOR ST. GEORGE L. SIOUSSAT, VANDERBILT UNIVERSITY, NASHVILLE, TENN.

Quite apart from the general profit that is to be derived from acquiring a knowledge of environments other than one's own, an investigation of the history of the new South ought to have, for the boys and girls of other parts of the United States, an interest and importance that are distinct and peculiar. If, in the present war in Europe, we have been stirred by examples of brave resistance to adversity and moved by the accounts of destruction and desolation, and if the question of the reconstruction of Europe and the fate of the conquered people is already in our minds, then surely the story of the rehabilitation of part of our own people and the consideration of these special problems, must make an appeal to the historically-minded and must receive from text-books and teachers somewhat extended treatment as a topic of recent history. The political history of reconstruction has been narrated from many points of view, both with reference to the period as a whole and with regard to particular States; but the vast social and economic changes, which beginning in the reconstruction time are still in progress, usually receive in our text-books less attention. Our boys and girls study carefully the work of the Gracchi, the organization of the medieval manor, the effects of inclosures in England, and the condition of the peasants in France before the revolution. Is it not possible to awaken an intelligent interest in the tasks with which emancipation and the industrial revolution have confronted the people of the South?

To point out to teachers some of the more important phases of this topic and to make some suggestions as to the literature to be consulted, constitute the purpose of the present paper. While some retrospect is necessary the period of time covered is principally that which began with the close of the reconstruction era, at the time when the South was permitted once more to exercise self-government, and when some progress had been made toward repairing the economic losses of the war.¹

¹ With regard to the background of the "general" history of the United States during this period, it is assumed that the reader is acquainted with the papers which have appeared in the earlier numbers of the HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE, Vol. 7, especially with F. L. Paxson's "The Study of Recent American History" in the March number, pp. 75-80. This includes an excellent list of references. Therefore references to the "American Nation" and to the works of Beard and others on recent history are here omitted.

At the outset, the reader must be warned against three possible misconceptions. (1) The uniqueness of any section may easily be exaggerated. In no case is this more true than in that of the South. The "progress" that I shall discuss later is a phenomenon which the southern people share with all the people of the United States. If the agriculture and the manufactures of the South have greatly increased, so have the agriculture and the manufactures of other regions. If the South has better schools and more of them than it formerly had, so has the West. While the South is especially indebted to northern capital, in the constant shifting of population which characterizes the United States the southern States have given more people to other sections than they have received. The influence of southerners in the North, especially in New York, and of northerners in the South, while incapable of exact statement, is an important factor in establishing a common understanding. The same language, religious and legal ideas held in common, inter-state business and commerce, the workings of the Federal Government—a thousand things tend to nationality and uniformity for one that tends to separation. From this point of view it might seem illogical to treat of the New South in a separate paper, when the new South is growing with and in the new nation. But in what follows we shall see that there is quite enough of a distinction to justify our topic. It is only exaggeration that must be avoided.

(2) The teacher must establish in his or her mind a proper balance with regard to the unity *within* the South. A review of the physical geography of the southern States, already studied, it is to be hoped, for the history of the Colonial Period, for the Westward Movement, and for the War and Reconstruction—will show what a land of contrasts the Southland is. Except in the one characteristic of political solidarity where the question of white self-government may be concerned, the South is a very indefinite term.

Besides the cotton belt there are sugar regions and rice districts and tobacco fields, and as will appear below, the South raises a considerable proportion of the grain crops of the United States. There are several great sea ports where the water is about as salt as in sea ports elsewhere. Much of the South lies near the sea level; yet the Allegheny Mountains reach into the heart of the South to raise some of their highest peaks. In many respects the common western characteristics of the southern States in the Mississippi Valley, as distinguished from those of the Atlantic sea-

board, are quite as noticeable as those which contrast the South and the North. One great common characteristic is the presence of the Negro race; yet even this is a factor of enormous variations. Within the single State of Tennessee is a county where the Negroes form seventy-five per cent. of the population, and one where they constitute two-tenths of one per cent. of the population. An important word of advice, then, to the teacher who is undertaking to discuss southern history, in recent years or in any period, is that he should be cautious in the matter of generalizations and should keep the upper hand of adjectives.

(3) It must be remembered that the new South is not entirely new. So far as the progress of mechanical invention had then permitted, the South, in the decade of 1850-1860, had made, in agriculture, in manufactures, and in transportation, very rapid advance. The abolition of slavery indeed removed from the white race many of the barriers of progress; but the price for the way in which this was done was the ruin of southern capital and the interruption and delay of an evolution which in 1860 had already slowly but surely manifested itself.

Our subject² seems naturally to divide itself into four chief heads. We must consider (1) the Economic Revolution which the war and emancipation brought to pass in the South, and the changes in the social structure which resulted; (2) the Educational Renaissance, in which the idealism of the new South has found its highest expression; (3) the Political and Constitutional Changes, and (4) the Negro—"the southerner's problem."

I. THE ECONOMIC REVOLUTION.³

We turn first to the readjustment of social and economic affairs which took place in the southern States in the fifteen years between 1865 and 1880—a read-

justment more fundamentally important than the political events which in large degree overshadowed the less dramatic factors. To rebuild railroads and bridges, to re-establish factories, to repair fences, barns and houses, to replace tools, to secure cattle,

³ For the agricultural history of the South a book of unusual merit is the text designed for young students, "The Story of Cotton and the Development of the Cotton States," by E. C. Brooks. This has a bibliography, which, however, omits the standard works of E. von Halle, "Baumwollproduktion und Pflanzungswirtschaft" and of M. B. Hammond, "The Cotton Industry." Better for young students than these last is M. B. Hammond's chapter on "Cotton Production in the South" in "S. in B. of N." Vol. 6, pp. 87-ff., with a valuable bibliography. For elementary students, Prof. C. A. MacMurry, of the George Peabody College for Teachers, has worked out an excellent "Type" study on "Corn and Cotton." There is no general detailed study of land tenure; but the changes in the State of Georgia have been made the basis of two excellent monographs, "The Economics of Land Tenure in Georgia," by E. M. Banks, and "The Agrarian Revolution in Georgia," by R. P. Brooks. Valuable for Mississippi are chapters in A. H. Stone's "Studies in the American Race Problem," and "A Study of Tenant Systems of Farming in the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta," by E. A. Berger and E. A. Goldenweiser, U. S. Dept. of Agriculture, Bul. 337. Suggestive also are a chapter by W. L. Fleming, in "S. in B. of N." Vol. 6, pp. 6-10, and a paper by L. C. Gray in "Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science," Vol. 40, No. 2, pp. 90-99. For the development of the newer type of agriculture, the chapters by various specialists, the best guide is found in Vol. 6 of the "S. in B. of N.", with bibliographies which point the way to the papers and reports of the Department of Agriculture, the Bureau of Statistics, and the Census Reports. Examples of such papers are C. W. Dabney's "Progress of Southern Agriculture," and S. A. Knapp's "Causes of Southern Rural Conditions and the Small Farm as an Important Remedy." On this as on the preceding topic, Bruce's treatment is very full. The "Manufacturers' Record," the reports of State agricultural bureaus, and the publications of the agricultural colleges also contain much valuable information.

The rise of the manufacturing industries is sketched in Holland Thompson's chapter, "The New South, Economic and Social, in Studies in Southern History and Politics." The same authors, "From the Cotton Field to the Cotton Mill" is more extensive in detail, but is limited chiefly to North Carolina. The chapters of Bruce's work are very full. Perhaps the best survey of the whole subject is found in V. S. Clark's two chapters in Vol. 6 of the "S. in B. of N." with excellent bibliographies. The latest information is presented in the "Manufacturers' Record." E. G. Murphy discusses the Child Labor Problem at length in his "Problems of the Present South," one of the indispensable works for every serious student, who will consult also the publications of the National Child Labor Committee and the National Consumers' League, and various bulletins of the Census and the Department of Labor. A summary, with a selected list of references, is given by W. B. Palmer, of the Bureau of Labor, in Vol. 6 of the "S. in B. of N." The "mountain whites" have been the subject of special work, among which are Horace Kephart's "Our Southern Highlanders," T. R. Dawley, Jr.'s "The Child that Toileth Not"—which throws some doubt on the usual description of conditions—and M. W. Morley's "The Carolina Mountains." Interestingly written and full of information is Ethel Arne's "The Story of Coal and Iron in Alabama."

² A very serviceable introduction to the whole subject of the New South will be found in some of the papers contributed to "Studies in Southern History and Politics," inscribed to W. A. Dunning. To the several papers that bear directly on the topics discussed below, specific reference is made in the proper place. The work of P. A. Bruce, "The Rise of the New South," which constitutes Vol. 17 of Lee's "History of North America" ably covers the whole field. The concluding "general summary" is helpful. The work, however, is unannotated and lacks a bibliography. Perhaps the most complete body of information is found in the following volumes of "The South in the Building of the Nation": Vol. 6, "Southern Economic History," edited by J. C. Ballagh; Vol. 7, "History of Intellectual Life," edited by J. B. Henneman; Vol. 10, "History of the Social Life," edited by S. C. Mitchell. These volumes are made up of articles by special students, on almost every phase of Southern life, with excellent bibliographies. A. B. Hart's "The Southern South," attempts a general survey, but is characterized by some amazing inaccuracies. The same writer contributes the article, "The South" to the "Cyclopedia of American Government." Channing, Hart and Turner's "Guide to the Reading and Study of American History" has a chapter on "The South, 1870-1895." The topics have apparently been left as in earlier editions, but the references have been brought up to date.

even to purchase seed—all these things required money. Much capital came in from the North, but for the southern farmer the chief resource was of necessity his land or the products of his land. To make the land productive demanded labor, and the labor problem was a most serious one. The Negroes were now "free." How could a new social system restore agriculture? That was the first problem of the men of that day, and it is properly the first problem of our study.

While, in 1860, agriculture in the South had been to no small extent one of diversified crops, it was natural, in the situation which confronted the South in 1865 that the chief resource at once was seen to be cotton. It is a characteristic of this plant that, although it demands some labor all the year, it tolerates a neglect which would ruin other crops. Once the routine is learned almost anyone can raise *some* cotton. Moreover it was the surest money crop and the best security for loans, and cotton prices were high. Therefore the South, following the line of least resistance, retrograded as to varied agriculture and went back to cotton. Fortunately in those years the South, though suffering politically from the carpet-bagger and the sealawag, was spared the pest which has since caused so much loss—the boll-weevil. Yet so great was the prostration of the South that in spite of good prices it was thirteen years after 1866 before the cotton crop equalled that which had been raised in 1860.

Of the three types of farms producing cotton—the large plantation, the small plantation and the small farm—the first and second, operated by Negro slaves under skilled supervision had formerly produced the greater part of the crop. How could the plantation continue after the overthrow of this long established system of controlled labor? The efforts of 1865 to find a substitute had not been successful. The experiment of a wages system had broken down, through the migratory tendencies of the freedmen and through the excessive competition for their labor. Immobile during the earlier war period, the Negroes rapidly became demoralized. The local attempts at regulation—the so-called "black codes,"—honestly, if not wisely, designed to restore industrial order⁴ had been obnoxious to the dominant authority of the North; the well intended but mischievous activities of the Freedman's Bureau had been obnoxious to the South. Visions of forty acres and a rule provided by the magic hand of the government filled the mind of the Negro; unscrupulous sharpers sometimes pretended to sell him plots of land, by means of painted sticks.⁵ One solution indeed would have been to sell the land to the Freedman, but had the planters wished to sell, the Negroes in general had no money to buy.⁶

⁴ W. A. Dunning. "Reconstruction Political and Economic," pp. 57-58.

⁵ Cf. W. L. Fleming's "Civil War and Reconstruction in Alabama," pp. 421-470.

⁶ Conditions in the coast region of Georgia where the negroes did early acquire the lands of what had been large

Out of this difficult situation arose an institution or custom, attended beyond question with many abuses, which, however, held society together economically and kept the fields productive. This custom is known as cropping, share-cropping, share tenancy, or by European analogy *metayage*. The owner of the land provided the land and house for the tenant, the live stock, the farming implements and the seed. The tenant furnished only his labor for the raising and gathering of the crop. The product was then divided between the landlord and the cropper, each ordinarily receiving half. Besides this custom which still prevails, others have made their appearance. In the "third and fourth" plan of "share renting," the landlord provides land, buildings and fuel; the tenant supplies his own stock, implements and support. The landlord receives one-third of the corn (where this is raised), and one-fourth of the cotton. Or the tenant may pay a fixed "standing rent" of so many pounds of cotton. Again the tenant may pay a cash or money rent.

Careful consideration of these plans will reveal a certain gradation. It will be seen that the fundamental questions involved are (a) the degree of supervision retained by the landowner and (b) inversely the degree of responsibility thrown upon the tenant.⁷ The cropper is really a day laborer paid by the year in a varying agricultural product instead of in money. He has no financial responsibility. At the end of his year contract he is legally free to move and enter into a new one. On the other hand, it is easy for him to anticipate his returns and to keep in debt. The vexation and loss caused by the irresponsibility of the Negro with little capacity for or incentive to efficient farming will lead to the disposition on the part of the landowner to make it difficult in practice for the Negro to move.⁸ On the other hand the landlord is able to direct the planting and all the mechanism of production. In the "third and fourth" system and all the gradations towards cash renting, the responsibility of the tenant is increased. He has a chance to make more; he bears more risk of failure. The cash renter if he is industrious and if prices rise may prosper; but the Negro cash renters of the Georgia black belt, without the superior direction of the landowners, became, in the words of a careful student "the poorest class of farmers to be found in any civilized country."⁹

rice plantations, are described in Banks, "Economics and Land Tenure in Georgia," pp. 62-67, and in Brooks, "Agrarian Revolution in Georgia," pp. 109-113. In the similar region of South Carolina, also, the negroes early acquired land—Pierce, "Freedman's Bureau," p. 13.

⁷ See especially Banks, op. cit., pp. 78-93; R. P. Brooks, op. cit., pp. 58-63; W. E. B. DuBois, "Negro Farmer," Census Bulletin, No. 8, pp. 78-81; Boeger and Goldenweiser, "Tenant Systems of Farming in the Yazoo-Mississippi Delta," *passim*.

⁸ See below.

⁹ R. P. Brooks, op. cit., p. 89.

This explanation should make it possible to avoid an error which may very easily arise from a superficial application of the statistics of the United States census.¹⁰ One reads that in the half-century between 1860 and 1910 the number of farms in the eleven States of the lower and middle South (excluding Maryland, Kentucky, West Virginia and Missouri) increased 353 per cent., although the area of farm lands in these States, notwithstanding the growth of Texas and of Florida increased but 43.3 per cent. In 1860 the average farm contained 365.1 acres of which 103.5 acres were improved. In 1910 the average farm had decreased in size to 115.3 acres of which 43.8 were improved. These averages in each case of course strike a balance between the largest and smallest farms. The statistics seem to show an enormous increase in the number of farms with a corresponding reduction in size. As will be made plain below, such a development has actually taken place and one of the characteristics of the new South is the increase in the number of the small farms both under black and, prevailingly, under white ownership. But the statistics are misleading because it is the practice of the Census Bureau to class as a farm "all the land which is directly farmed by one person managing and conducting agricultural operations, either by his own labor alone or with the assistance of members of his household or hired employees."¹¹ Consequently the land occupied by every tenant is classed as a "farm" although his holding may be only a small fraction of an estate of many hundred acres the cultivation of which is under the direction of the landlord.

In the compilation of the thirteenth census¹² the attempt was made for the first time to correct this erroneous impression by obtaining special information from 325 selected counties distributed through the eleven States from Tennessee and Virginia southward. The results showed that there were nearly 40,000 tenant plantations consisting of 5 or more single small farms. These plantations contained over 28,000,000 acres of farm land, of which nearly 16,000,000 acres were improved. This total acreage amounted to about one-tenth of all the land in farms of all sorts in these eleven States. The average plantation contained 724.2 acres, of which 405.3 acres were improved, as compared with an average acreage for farms of all sorts in these eleven States of 115.3 acres, of which 43.8 acres were improved. The average plantation was more than five times as large as the average farm

¹⁰ In the half century between 1860 and 1910 a number of farms in the eleven States of the lower and middle South (excluding Maryland, Kentucky, West Virginia and Missouri) increased 353 per cent., although the area of farm lands in these States increased but 43.3 per cent., notwithstanding the growth of Texas and Florida. In 1860 the average farm contained 365.1 acres, of which 103.5 acres were improved. In 1910 the average farm had decreased in size to 115.3 acres, of which 43.8 were improved. Thirteenth Census, 1910, Agriculture, Vol. 5, p. 878.

¹¹ Thirteenth Census, Abstract, p. 265, note 1.

¹² Thirteenth Census, Agriculture, Vol. 5, chap. 12.

in the whole United States. The average tenant farm in the plantation contained only 38.5 acres of land of which 31.2 were improved. This system was both absolutely and relatively more important in Mississippi—especially in the Yazoo-Mississippi delta, than in any other area of the South, but Alabama, Georgia, South Carolina and Texas have sections that belong in the same category.

I have thought it necessary to present in some detail the survival of the plantation, which has so many analogies to the ante-bellum economy, because the conditions found in this cotton belt with its enormous preponderance of the Negro tenants are fundamental to an understanding of the thought of the South.

It is outside of this wide area of the plantation that agriculture is carried on upon small farms under independent proprietors or renters. There were very many such farms in the South before the war; their number has enormously increased since. Part of the increase has been due to the breaking up of plantations, part to the development of new agricultural areas such as those of Texas and Oklahoma or of the Georgia "wire-grass" region.¹³ To some extent, as will appear hereafter, the Negroes have shared in this tendency: but outside of the plantation area the prevailing type is that of the white farmer; and even in the plantation area the Italian immigrant has made a significant beginning.¹⁴ It is a remarkable fact that the Negroes located in the richer soils of the black belt, unless they are closely supervised by intelligent white direction, do less well than the small farmers who use fertilizers and better tools on the less productive soil. Though accurate statistics do not seem to be available it has been estimated that whereas in 1860 probably not more than 12 per cent. of the cotton crop was raised by white labor, in 1883 as much as 44 per cent. was raised by whites and that now more cotton is raised by white people than by blacks.¹⁵ This does not mean, of course, that there are fewer Negroes raising cotton: it clearly emphasizes the increase of the white farmers.

Other striking changes have marked the development of southern agriculture. In ante-bellum times little fertilizing was done; but the discovery of phosphate rock in South Carolina in 1867 opened the way to the use of commercial fertilizers which made the poorer soils available for cotton and other crops, and compensated for the decrease in productivity in the old cotton belt. More remarkable than this, however, is the utilization of the cotton seed. In the old economy this was pure waste. Scientific agriculture has demonstrated, however, the great value of cotton seed oil; and has shown that the seed, or better the meal after the oil has been extracted, or best of all, the animal manures obtained by feeding the meal and hulls to cattle, return, if applied to the soil, all the

¹³ Banks, op. cit., pp. 30-44; R. P. Brooks, op. cit., 104-105.

¹⁴ A. H. Stone, "The Italian Cotton Grower," "South Atlantic Quarterly," Vol. 4, pp. 45-46.

¹⁵ W. L. Fleming, "S. in B. of N.," Vol. 5, p. 15.

essential elements which the cotton has taken in its growth¹⁶. This is where the white farmers, and those of the Negroes who have profited by agricultural training, enjoy the greatest advantage over their predecessors. Offsetting this is the destructiveness of the boll-weevil, which crossed the Rio Grande from Mexico in 1892-1893, rapidly spread over Texas and has since marched North and East fifty miles a year.¹⁷ The fight against this pest has stirred all the inventiveness of scientific agriculture. Earlier planting, the careful selection of seed and cleaner cultivation have made it possible to resist the weevil to some extent: and at least one good result has been to force the farmers to consider a variation of crops. The pursuit of more careful methods has brought about a recovery and increase of production in Texas, Arkansas and Oklahoma: but the problem in the old black belt, where it is a case of Negro versus boll-weevil, is a serious one.

By 1880, the South had caught up to the ante-bellum production of over five million bales of cotton. In 1914, the total production was over sixteen million, eight hundred thousand bales.¹⁸ Thus within twenty-five years, notwithstanding all the difficulties, the cotton production was trebled. But in accomplishing this, the ratio of the value of cotton as a crop to the value of other agricultural crops has been lessened. That is to say, there has been a marked increase in other crops, a return to some degree of diversification. In several States the cotton crop represents fifty or even sixty per cent. of the whole agricultural products in value: the publicity with which it is handled, and the interest which attaches to the price, but above all the unwillingness of banks to lend upon other crops: all these factors will help to explain the continuing prominence of cotton in popular psychology. No other single crop approaches cotton in value and no other general field crop available to a large portion of the South pays so much per acre.¹⁹ But the total value of other farm products vastly exceeds that of cotton.

Besides cotton the rice and cane-sugar crops are entirely Southern. Of other agricultural products the South raises a large share of the tobacco, peanuts and sweet potatoes. Of the cereals, taken as a whole, the South in 1909 produced something less than a third in value of the total production of the United States. The increase of value of the corn crop of the South Atlantic States was the highest of any geographic division of the United States except the mountain division of the West, and the increase in the West South Central division also was higher than that for the United States as a whole. In value the corn crop was 28.1 per cent. of the value of all crops in the South, as against 42.7 per cent. for the cotton crop.²⁰

¹⁶ E. C. Brooks, "The Story of Cotton," pp. 358 ff.

¹⁷ Ibid, pp. 325-328.

¹⁸ U. S. Bureau of the Census, "Cotton Production," 1914.

¹⁹ G. McCutchen, "The Case for Cotton," Bulletin University of South Carolina, October, 1915.

²⁰ Thirteenth Census, Agriculture, Vol. 5, p. 549.

For the years since 1909 the statistics of the Department of Agriculture show a steady continuation of the progress of the Southern farmer.²¹ Reports of ten of the cotton-growing States have been studied by the Bureau of Crop Estimates. It appears that in these States, during the five years from 1909 to 1914, the cotton acreage varied little, constituting between 43 and 46 per cent. of the whole acreage: yet there was a strong upward trend to cotton prices, which would discourage diversification. Through 1914 the acreage in corn declined slightly: in that year it was 38.7 per cent. of the whole. The acreage of wheat, oats, and hay showed a steady increase. These three crops combined rose from 11 per cent. in 1911 to 18.6 per cent. in 1915. The year 1915, reflecting the results of the cotton panic of the year before, saw the most notable reduction in cotton acreage. The percentage fell from 44.9 per cent. in 1914 to 36.7 per cent. in 1915. Whether this will continue is extremely doubtful.

The Manufacturers' Record,²² estimating the value of the cotton and cotton seed of the crop of 1915 to be \$750,000,000, points out that the value of the other crops in the South was more than two and one-half times as great as the value of the cotton crop; or in other words that the value of the cotton and the cotton seed was less than one third that of the whole farm crops of the Southern States.

Inseparably connected with these agricultural developments has been that of a system of credits.²³ In ante-bellum times credit for agricultural operations was furnished to the planter by the cotton factor, who transacted his business in one of the larger cities of the South. In the first years after the war, this system was re-established. But slaves were no longer the basis of security, and lands were heavily mortgaged. In this situation the legislature passed "crop lien" laws, which "permitted the planters to mortgage their crops and gave to the holders of these mortgages a *prior lien* on the crops when they were harvested."²⁴ The ill effect was to perpetuate and intensify a system by which the farmer was constantly in debt, but it is hard to see what other plan could at the time have been adopted. But very interesting changes have come about. The factor has largely given way to the country merchant, who accommodated not only the larger landowners, but the tenants. Moreover the increase in transportation facilities has developed the practice of interior buying, by which agents of the brokers, or even cotton manufacturers, buy cotton at interior points, and it is no longer necessary to wait for a factor to sell. The country merchant deals in general merchandise, and buys cotton.

²¹ Monthly Crop Report, February 29, 1916.

²² Issue of March 16, 1916.

²³ Banks, op. cit., pp. 45-61; R. P. Brooks, op. cit., pp. 32-34; Stone, "S. in B. of N.," Vol. 6, pp. 420-426; "Agricultural Credit and Crop Mortgages," and by the same author, "The Cotton Factorage System in the Southern States," "American Historical Review," Vol. 20, pp. 557 ff.

²⁴ Stone, "S. in B. of N.," Vol. 6, 421.

In so far as he feels unable to advance money on any other crop and dictates the raising of cotton, he represents an obstacle to a varied agriculture. In many cases the country merchant has come into possession of the land, which he leases out to tenants, thus playing both the role of the landlord and the role of a capitalist. Moreover, in recent years land mortgage companies have been of assistance and there has been a wide development of country banks, such as the Witham banks in Georgia. Naturally the South looks forward with a peculiar interest to the initiation of a system of rural credits under government control.

We pass from the realm of agriculture to that of manufactures, to consider the effect of the industrial revolution upon the South. In the decade 1899-1909 the value of the manufactured products of the South was 12.4 per cent. of that of the whole United States, and the rate of increase for the decade was 107.8 per cent. as against 81.2 per cent. for the entire country. The South with one-third of the population of the country, contained in 1910 slightly more than one-sixth of the total number of wage earners in manufacturing industries, contributed something over one-eighth of the total value of manufactured products and showed a more rapid increase for the decade than did any of the older sections.²⁵

As in the case of England and New England, the first expansion of the factory system developed in the textile industries. In the later seventies the price of cotton fell to half that of 1870. Farming became less profitable. Before 1880, relatively few cotton factories had been established. But in 1890 it appeared that the number of spindles in North Carolina alone was more than three and one-half times the amount of ten years before, over \$10,000,000 of capital were invested, and the North Carolina mills consumed nearly one-third of that State's cotton production. The next decade saw a rapid increase, and the prosperity of the cotton mills. The depressed condition of agriculture encouraged many to leave the farms and to come to the cotton mill towns. From these beginnings the factory system has developed in the manufacture of other products, and constitutes another phase of the social revolution which has had a powerful effect upon Southern life. In one respect, however, there has been an important contrast with the experience of New England. There, after the early years, a constant stream of foreign immigration has come in to furnish the labor supply. Operatives in the Southern mills, however, are practically all native whites. The rise of the factories has changed the life and employment of part of the South's own people instead of injecting a new element into the community. Again the development of New England industrialism carried with it the decline of agriculture: in the South the two pursuits have progressed side by side.

Coming into prominence at a late period when the mills of the East had passed through the formative

stages and become established, the Southern mills have seemed to many to thrive because of the lower wages and longer hours, and especially through the absence or inefficiency of child labor laws. There is much truth in this: but it is only fair to point out that the situation of the mills in the cotton producing regions is near water power, and the consequent saving in transportation and fuel was an important factor: and that the labor for the most part was not so skilled as that in the North. In recent years cotton has no longer brought the low prices of the nineties, and the farm has strongly competed with the mill. Much of the cotton, because of the great increase in the spindles, must now be brought from a distance, and the product has to be shipped to distant markets: fuel is more expensive, wages have risen. Massachusetts still holds the first place, but North and South Carolina compete for the second place, Rhode Island ranks fourth, then Georgia and, at a distance, Alabama. Now more cotton is consumed by the mills in the South than by those in the North. Hitherto the products of the South have been chiefly of the coarser grades, but the manufacture of finer materials steadily progresses.

As in other factory regions, there has developed the problem of regulating the labor of women and children. The social effects of the cotton mills have been a matter of much dispute. The evils have been painted in lurid colors. It is hardly open to question, however, that there have been very good results. Many mill owners have pursued an enlightened policy. The concentration of population in small towns has made schools possible where, under the former rural conditions, no effective schools had existed. The climatic conditions are far more favorable than in the North. If sanitation has been crude, there have been fewer overcrowded tenements. What is needed is better enforcement of reasonable laws, rather than too severe legislation. The agitation has had the good result of calling attention to the condition of the mountain whites, and splendid efforts have been made to carry education into the remoter sections, where a multitude of good English stock, possessing the very ballads of centuries ago, capable of development, but hitherto checked and limited by an unfavorable environment, awaits the enfranchisement of education.²⁶

Cotton cloth is only one of the important manufacturing industries of the new South. Another likewise derives its raw material from the cotton plant. This is the crushing by machinery of cotton seed for the production of oil. The oil is shipped to Italy, where it is used as olive oil; it is employed in making artificial butter; it goes to make soap; it is used for packing fish.²⁷ The cotton seed of the crop of 1909 was worth \$142,000,000. Only about 60 per cent. of this seed went to the mill. The oil extracted was worth over \$55,000,000; the cake and meal were worth over

²⁵ Besides the general references given above, D. A. Tompkins, "The Mountain Whites as an Industrial Labor Factor in the South," "S. in B. of N." Vol. 6, pp. 58-61.

²⁷ E. C. Brooks, op. cit., pp. 361-362.

\$35,000,000; the hulls alone were worth nearly \$10,000,000; and the "linters" or lint that sticks to the seed, used in a variety of manufactures, were worth nearly \$5,000,000. All these by-products were formerly wasted. Naturally, in the new age, the oil mills constitute an enormous industry, which, because of the perishable character of the raw product, must predominantly be located in the South. In 1913 there were in the United States 870 cotton-seed oil mills of which all but six were in the southern States. The total value of the seed crushed was \$155,500,000.²⁸

To attempt to discuss other important manufactures, such as those which have to do with tobacco, petroleum, turpentine and resin, would extend this paper beyond all limits. Just a word may be said as to lumber and iron. From colonial times to 1870 the center of the lumber industry was in the North Eastern States. In 1880 the States on the Great Lakes took the lead. In 1905 the South forged ahead, producing 42 per cent. of the total output of the union. The South had increased the value of lumber production more than fivefold since 1880, while that of the rest of the country had little more than doubled. The three great lumber belts in the South are those of the mountain region whence comes the oak, hemlock, poplar and pine; the Atlantic lowlands and the gulf plain with their yellow pine, and the swamps, that produce cypress and live-oak. From the saw mill stage the industry has expanded to the manufacture of the more refined products. High Point, North Carolina, is now the center of a flourishing specialized furniture manufacture, reminding one of Grand Rapids, Michigan. Of older importance than the lumber industry is the manufacture of iron and steel. In its modern stage this dates from 1882-1883. In Tennessee and Alabama this was a time of "boom" towns, of which Birmingham survived. In this region the manufacture has centralized, declining in other States. It has been absorbed in the great tendency to combination, especially in the purchase by the United States Steel Corporation or the Tennessee Coal and Iron

Company. The steel trust has preferred, however, to exploit chiefly the Mesaba region on the Great Lakes though a stalwart friend of the iron industry now calls attention to the greater desirability for strategic reasons of developing the southern fields. As in the case of lumber a number of branch specialized industries have sprung out of that of iron and steel manufacture, for example the making of stoves.

Along with the rise of manufactures has developed of course the expansion of commerce and the growth of cities. The census of 1910 showed a much more rapid rate of increase in the cities of the South than in the rural districts, but the latter showed a considerable increase, whereas the rural population of New England slightly declined. The rate of increase for the cities of the South was higher in all of the divisions of the South than in New England, the East North Central, or the West North Central divisions; and the rate in the West South Central division was higher than that in any of them except the Pacific. But the proportion of rural to urban population is higher in the East South Central than in any other division and in the South as a whole than in the rest of the country. Only 22.5 per cent. of the southern people live in towns and cities. Of fifty cities in the United States which have a population of one hundred thousand or more, there are but nine in the South. Of one hundred and seventy-nine cities in the whole country with a population between 25,000 and 100,000 the South has thirty-five. Of more than 2,000 cities having between 2,500 and 25,000 inhabitants there are in the South less than 500.²⁹ Thus the South is still a rural community, marked, however, by a rapid rate of increase in municipal life. Especially significant is the growth of great ports like New Orleans and Galveston with their enormous export trade³⁰ and that of railroad centers such as Memphis and Houston, and manufacturing and jobbing cities like Birmingham, Richmond and Nashville.³¹

(This paper will be continued in the October issue.)

Position of the Historian in Statehood Centennials

BY JOHN WILLIAM OLIVER, INDIANA STATE LIBRARY, INDIANAPOLIS, IND.

There come about periods, when it seems advisable for different professions to depart slightly from their accustomed plans, and give special attention to questions that lie outside their regular course. The three-hundredth anniversary of Shakespeare's death, for example, is now being celebrated throughout the English-speaking world. Hundreds of people, who in other years manifested little interest in this immortal writer, are now diligently reading his plays, and witnessing their reproduction. During the last school year, he has practically monopolized the English courses in our universities, colleges and high schools.

²⁸ "Cotton Production, 1913," Census Bulletin 125, pp. 30-32.

This is but one illustration of those special occasions that demand our attention. Two years ago, following the outbreak of the great European war, many colleges and universities in this country found it necessary to suddenly re-arrange their history courses. New classes had to be provided for, in European history, and American diplomacy. The writer, who at that time was engaged in research work at the University of Wisconsin, and who had his

²⁹ These computations are derived from the Thirteenth Census, Abstract.

³⁰ B. J. Ramage, in "S. in B. of N." Vol. 6, pp. 363-368, 607-610.

³¹ U. B. Phillips, *Ibid.*, pp. 315-316.

heart set upon taking a special course that was to be offered by the department of American history, was informed at the time of registration, that that particular course would have to give way to a class in diplomatic history. This change was necessitated because of the great interest which the war had created in the study of international relations. Students wanted to know something of the problems of diplomacy, and it was up to the departments of history and political science to provide classes for their accommodation.

The recurrence of these special events imposes new demands upon our profession. But the event in which certain of us are now specially interested is the observance of statehood centennials. Five States are now on the eve of celebrating the hundredth anniversary of their admission into the union. That they will have a celebration of some kind, is well known. But the exact nature of that celebration, the significant events of the last century that shall be emphasized, the study of the developments that have occurred within each State—these will depend in large part upon the attitude of the historian.

And the occasion should be welcomed on our part as an opportunity to render a genuine service. There will be a great temptation for producing cheap historical literature. The popularizer and the sensational story teller are going to be in the field early. To the knowledge of the writer, two large publishing companies are already canvassing two of the States that are planning for the centennial, in an attempt to have county histories written and put on the market, purely for commercial purposes. The stories contained on those gilt-edged pages will form the storehouse of historical knowledge for the citizens of each respective county. And while it is true that some of the histories thus produced are not without merit, yet they fall so far short of what we as a profession expect, that we wonder at their sale.

Because of this very condition, it is imperative that the historian assert himself in an unusual degree. If the popularizer and the commercial publisher are to be checked, and if the true facts of a locality are to be set forth, then the historian must (to use the current word) provide for a certain kind of preparedness.

The plans contemplated should enlist the services of every teacher of history in the high schools, in the colleges, the research students and the professors in the universities. It is the desire to include every individual who is interested in the study, the teaching, or the writing of history, for it is believed that the scope of the work to be covered is of sufficiently wide range to enlist their combined support.

First; let us consider the work that can be done by those who conduct seminaries, and who emphasize research work. They doubtless have the opportunity to render the greatest service of all. The students that enroll with them are, in most cases, residents of the State. When they enter upon graduate study, they are supposed to be prepared for thorough research

work. Therefore, on the approach of the statehood centennial, you should select the one or two most important historical movements that have occurred in your commonwealth during the last century, and make it the subject of special study. If such a study is not made, then others, less well prepared, will be busy in an attempt to discover some new or startling fact, and will flash it before the public. Such movements should be checked. And the most effective method to suggest is that of having the best equipped students undertake these investigations. The facts should be reported to you. Around the seminar table, and in joint conferences with all those interested in the study, a thorough discussion should take place, and the real story of the movement should be unraveled. When this is done, the results of the investigation should be published. And if given proper publicity, there will be no occasion for the clever writer of a Sunday paper to distort the facts by composing a new feature story. Of one thing we can be positively certain, that those episodes in our State history, which lend themselves to the more dramatic treatment, will give rise to numerous sensational stories. And the extent to which the members of the history profession fail in making known the real fact, to that extent will the public be led astray, and history will be falsified.

This research work of which I speak should be undertaken early, at least three or four years in advance of the centennial observance. If it is to be of any genuine value either to those who teach the subject, or to those who direct the exercises during the centennial year, then they must be in possession of the facts before laying their plans. So far as the writer has been able to learn, only two universities, in the five States preparing for centennial celebrations, have seen fit to select a local movement for the subject of their seminar study this year. Surely there have been historical developments within each of our commonwealths, during the last century, of sufficient importance to justify a careful study. And I submit for your consideration the value of State and sectional subjects during the next two or three years.

Next, addressing those who are considering the writing of text books, I raise the question—does not the approach of the statehood centennials provide the best opportunity they will ever have to make a real contribution? The schools of every city, town and rural district of the State are going to study, as never before, the growth of their commonwealth. Boards of Education will demand it in the public schools, and the colleges will add it in order to satisfy the students and patrons. The demand for a carefully written, impartial and comprehensive history will, therefore, be enormous. Those who contemplate writing a text-book will never find conditions more favorable, or the demand for their :ale any greater. But their contributions should be made early. Do not allow the situation that occurred in Indiana to repeat itself. It was only four months ago that a committee was appointed to visit the State Board of Education, and request that it hereafter refuse the adoption of any his-

tory for a text-book unless it contained a minimum of at least sixty pages devoted to the history of Indiana. What was the result? When the members of the State Board of Education met last week,¹ there were six different histories submitted for adoption. Each of these histories had been prepared, set up, and typed within a period of less than four months. And while it is true that certain of them represent careful and earnest work on the part of the authors, yet they themselves must acknowledge that the brief time allotted would scarcely admit the use of extensive, original material. How much greater would have been the service rendered to the cause of State history, had these texts been made available four or five years ago.

Closely allied to the text-book writing, but really offering a broader field, is that of making at this time, a careful study of the institutions in each section of the country. No text-book can include all this material. And if the study is to be an exhaustive one, the historian must do it. Such a study as contemplated will of necessity overlap the boundary lines of the individual States, and include the institutions of the neighboring commonwealths. And well it should, for this will necessitate a thorough investigation of the institution wherever it exists. To be specific, there is at this moment, in Indiana and Illinois, a great demand on the part of the schools, libraries, clubs, and even among the laymen, for a detailed history of the railroads in the old Northwest. The development of the entire system of transportation in that section of the country would, if properly written, meet with a reception that is seldom accorded to historical works.

There is also a universal demand for a history of the churches in the two States just mentioned. To be complete, such a history would of course have to include the growth of the different churches in the States of the Northwest. But this would only enhance its value, both to the public and the author. A detailed history of the educational system in that region is also awaiting the study of some careful investigator.

The two Southern States now on the eve of centennial celebrations perhaps offer even a greater opportunity for institutional history than the Northwest. The development of the railroad system in the South and especially the system of transportation contemplated just prior to the Civil War, present fitting subjects for centennial study. For biographical history—of which there will be an unusual demand—no section is so rich in material as the Southern States. For there, more than in any other region, the leadership of a few men determined their history.

And as to Missouri, no State offers such an inviting field for the study of transportation system in the West. The migration that poured into the upper Missouri valley, the far West, and the Southwest for three-quarters of a century, rendezvoused in this border State. There is no chapter in the development of the West that is richer in romance and genuine his-

torical interest, and a thorough study of that great movement would be a worthy centennial contribution, not only to Missourians, but to every student of Western history.

As to the writing of biographies, I believe it to be literally true, in stating that the observance of statehood centennials, offers the best opportunity that we will ever have in producing the life history of representative citizens. The celebrations that are being planned call for a review of those characters who helped in the building of the commonwealth. Biographical history will be seized upon as never before, and we will be neglecting a duty that is peculiarly our own, if we fail to write the true story of the fathers of our State.

But this, also, should be undertaken at least three or four years in advance of the centennial observance. Resorting again to self-accusation, we made the mistake in Indiana of postponing this work until the present year. The result is that we are now rushing through, in newspaper fashion, the lives of "A Hundred Leading Hoosiers." Needless to say, it is being done in a very superficial manner. Had this work been undertaken five years ago, the life history of the leading hoosiers would now be found in every school in the State.

In turning to those of our number who are engaged primarily in the *teaching* of history, and who find no time for research work, the question arises, what can they do? Because of the large number of classes that must be met daily, and because of the limited library facilities at their disposal, about the only thing left to do is that of simply teaching. Necessarily, they must await the appearance of the special research work and the text-books that have been mentioned. But when these special contributions are brought to their attention they should see to it that they get a place in the curriculum. During these few years, we are justified in eliminating some of the regular courses and substituting therefor a study of State and local history. The extent to which each community becomes interested will depend in large part upon the emphasis that is given to these subjects.

Aside from all this special work that has been suggested, there is yet another duty that falls upon us as a profession. In this, we should act as a unit. Every individual who is interested in the teaching or study of history should do a little propagandist work. If historians were ever justified in making a campaign in behalf of a cause, and urging upon the public, the importance of a correct study of their own history, it is on the eve of some great anniversary or centennial celebration.

On such occasions, it becomes our duty to take the initiative. A list of subjects for study and investigation should be agreed upon, and an appeal should then be made to State authorities for sufficient means to conduct the research work. Even wealthy individuals should not be overlooked in this appeal. Agencies ought to be provided for publishing and distributing

¹ May 8, 1916.

the results of these investigations after they have been made.

The plan advocated is not an impossible one. Three years ago, when the Panama-Pacific exposition was being planned, the people of California became greatly interested in the study of local history. Professor C. E. Chapman, of the State University, organized a seminar for the purpose of conducting the research work. Students flocked into his courses, and additional classes had to be organized. A prominent order, known as the Native Sons of the Golden West, took up the study, and when the next session of the legislature met, an act was passed and signed by Governor Johnson, for the purpose of encouraging the study of local history. Funds were provided, out of which fellowships and research prizes were to be offered. And to-day, California is many times richer in the collection of historical material than she was three years ago.

In one of our neighboring States, we find a still better illustration. Professor Alvord, of Illinois, has set a high standard in this line of work. Through his careful guidance, the publications of the Illinois Historical Society are bringing to light the most complete survey of State documents in the Middle West. The social, political and institutional history of that commonwealth will no longer be written from the personal stories of pioneers, but will be founded upon purely documentary evidence. The approach of the Statehood anniversaries offer unusual opportunities to inaugurate similar movements elsewhere.

Thus far, all the work that has been mentioned should be done in advance of the centennial year. When the actual celebrations begin, and when the historical dramas and pageants are being given, the historian can do little more than be an interested spectator. Doubtless he will be called upon by the pageant-master and play-writer to suggest episodes and proper historical settings. And such assistance should be cheerfully given. In the main, however, our work should be temporarily suspended during the actual playing of the game.

But the work to be done after the celebration is over is quite definite. In centennial observances as in all similar events, the tendency will be to drop the whole thing as soon as the spectacular features have been presented. The pageant-master will pass on into other sections to dramatize their events. The committees that have formed the working units in the various counties of the State will become disorganized. The newspapers that have been running stories of historic interest will find other items for their columns. It remains for the historians alone to gather up the fragments of real historic interest, and preserve them for future generations.

This feature of the work will perhaps not interest as many of us as did the plans leading up to the celebration. But it is none the less imperative that some of our number enter upon the duty. As stated early in this paper, the occasion will arouse a more universal interest in the study of local history than any

other event in our generation. The centennial will be small indeed if it does not leave us richer in material for new studies. And who knows but that from these sources a new history of the State, or even of an institution, may be written. The stories should at least be tested, and the truth made known.

These are the duties, in the observance of statehood centennials, that devolve primarily upon the historian. The suggestions made appear to be of sufficient range to enlist the attention of every student and teacher of Western American history. The charge cannot be made that such a plan as here outlined is too sectional or local in scope. A thorough study of the history of any one of the five States now preparing for its centennial carries with it a very significant part of American history. No one can study the history of Indiana or Illinois without gaining a rather definite conception of the development of the old Northwest territory. A correct study of the history of Mississippi or Alabama involves a general study of the entire cotton South. And a history of a century's development in Missouri will include a careful survey of the territory that lies west of its border.

Hence, the occasion offers us an opportunity to render a very special service to the cause of history. Plans are already under way for celebrations of some kind. And if we actively enlist in the work, and help to direct those plans, we will be rendering a far greater service than we will if we simply stand aside, sneer at the attempts of others, and then, at the close of the celebrations, lament the fact that history has been woefully distorted. If we really want the people to appreciate their history, then let us see to it that they know their history.¹

The Historical Association (English) has taken over the "Journal of History" founded four years ago by Mr. Harold F. B. Wheeler. The Journal's existence was threatened as a result of circumstances connected with the war. On the other hand, many subscribers of "History" were members of the Historical Association. At the annual meeting in January, 1916, a resolution was unanimously carried to the effect that the Association should, if possible, possess an organ of its own. As a result of the situation concerning the Journal and the desire of the Association for a medium through which to address its constituency, arrangements have been made for publishing the Journal with the same title as the official quarterly journal of the Historical Association. The editor is Prof. A. F. Pollard. With him are associated on the editorial board, Prof. F. J. C. Hearnshaw, Miss M. A. Howard, Dr. J. E. Morris, Mr. J. A. White, and Miss E. Jeffries Davis, secretary. The first number under the new arrangements, that for April, 1916, has arrived, and is numbered new series Vol. 1, No. 1, published by Macmillan Company, at the annual subscription price of 4s, 6d. This number contains a paper by Sir Charles Lucas on "The Teaching of Imperial History;" two papers upon the "Teaching of Naval and Military History," by Julian Corbett and H. W. Hodges; and a discussion entitled, "History and Science," by A. F. Pollard.

¹Paper read April 27, 1916, before a conference of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association at Nashville.

A System for Library Reference Work

BY E. LAWRENCE BIGELOW, BULKELEY SCHOOL, NEW LONDON, CONN.

Library reference exercises have come to be a necessary and valuable part of high school work especially in connection with history. It is oftentimes a problem how to take care of such work satisfactorily, but after considerable experimenting the author hit upon the following, which seems to work well and may be of use to others.

A selection was made of the topics to be used, which were numbered and card catalogued with the references for them. The following is an example taken at random from English History.

The teacher wishes to give an assignment on "The Origin of the Prime Minister," which is found to be sub-topic 19 under main topic 64, George I, with two references, A and B. A printed form, about $5\frac{1}{2}$ by $8\frac{1}{2}$ inches, is filled out with the pupil's name, topic reference book, volume and page, the topic number and date when due. The form is then passed to the pupil, who records his notes on the same slip using both sides if necessary.

A duplicate copy of the notes is put in the pupil's notebook, and after the topic is given in class, the form with the notes is passed in to the teacher who then has a complete record of what the pupil has actually done. It is an easy matter to record in the class book the number of the topic, with the date when it is due, and check it as the work is passed in.

When the plan was first tried it was with some doubt as to how the pupils would take hold of it, but it worked well from the start. The passing in of the printed slip as an affidavit of the work done seems to appeal to them, and then, too, they know they cannot get away from such a system. It is up to them to earn their credit or a zero, for there is no chance of bluffing or copying someone else's work, as the references are always different, and the slip handed in is a receipt for completed work.

There is the tendency of course for the pupil to copy the reference word for word from the book, but when it is given in class it should be in the pupil's own words and delivered in such a way that the rest of the class may take notes upon it. This in itself is training worth while and should help the pupil in expressing his own thoughts and impressions derived from his reading.

Different references are sometimes assigned upon the same topic, which offers opportunities of comparison and discussion in class. The references are seldom over a page in length and are used to emphasize the main points covered by the text. The forms can be secured from any printer at about \$4.00 per thousand.

The First Newspaper Published in Alaska

BY PRESIDENT C. C. O'HARRA, STATE SCHOOL OF MINES, RAPID CITY, S. D.

The first newspaper published in Alaska was the "Sitka Times." Instead of being in conventional type it is dressed in writing, and for this reason is all the more interesting in displaying the disadvantages which the people of the country then had to meet.

Volume one, number one, was issued at Sitka on Saturday, September 19, 1868, a little less than one year after the United States came into full possession of the territory. The first official overture for the purchase of Alaska was made during the presidency of James Buchanan. The purchase at the price of \$7,200,000.00 was consummated March 30, 1867, and formal transfer of the territory was made at Sitka, October 18 of the same year. The total number of inhabitants at that time was about thirty thousand, of whom less than five hundred were white people. The value of the products of Alaska since its purchase by the United States including furs, fishery products and minerals is approximately \$500,000,000.00. Sitka, the early capital of Alaska, is in many ways the most interesting of all the Alaskan towns. It is located

on a bay famed for its transcendent beauty. It was for some years the center of Alaskan interests of all kinds, but more recent discoveries of mineral wealth throughout the territory has gradually taken away from its importance. The four plates presented here-with reproduce an original copy of the first number of the "Sitka Times" in reduced form. The original is in two sheets, and each sheet is written on both sides. The size of the sheets is approximately eight inches by twelve inches. Nearly all lines in the original are in red ink and these have not in every case reproduced well in the plates, otherwise the reproduction is good. The paper is a recent gift to the School of Mines from Mr. Joseph B. Gossage, founder and editor of the "Rapid City Daily Journal," he having received it years ago from a friend. The sheets will be mounted and placed on exhibition in the School of Mines where they will serve as a most interesting souvenir of the early history of this rich northern land.—*From the Pahasapa Quarterly, April, 1916, p. 34. [Published by the South Dakota School of Mines, Rapid City, S. D.]*

The First Alaskan Newspaper

ANCHORAGE STAR.

Editorial Staff.
S. D. S., Saturday September 16, 1863.
The weekly Times will be
published and furnished to
Subscribers in Alaska every
Saturday at 25 cents copy
each, Postage and Return.

James Wagner, editor
and proprietor of the Times, etc. etc.
which they are regarded
as the best in Alaska.

Advertisments.
S. D. Wagner and
Son.

Labor, Restaurant and
Bastery, all of which is
conducted as at 1st annual happy manne's
Restaurant. 25 cents. Smile and good liquor and
Hart Alaska A. S.

S. D. Mitchell Lawyer
and Notary Public. His
office, Second Street Alaska A. S.

W. H. Hart, Merchant
in Dry Goods and Groceries,
Hardware, Household articles
etc. etc. in front of the
Central Hotel Alaska A. S.

John P. Hartson, Auctioneer
and Slave dealer. His
office, in front of the
Central Hotel Alaska A. S.

City Market. Find it lots of fresh meat in hand
Auctioneer. W. H. Hart, Hart
Market Street, Alaska A. S.

City Market. Find it lots of fresh meat in hand
Auctioneer. W. H. Hart, Hart
Market Street, Alaska A. S.

Notice.

Today our Alaska Times will be
published again in the
world at large.

It is the first attempt ever made to publish a newspaper in this great
land of Alaska.

The Times will be devoted to
local and general news.

We shall, when we deem it necessary, publish
various documents all questions
of public interest, touching the appearance of the Times being
affairs about Alaska.

The politics and religion of the
Times will be neutral.

The Alaska Times has no bias in favor of place, opinion
or in favor of any individual, party or the Town itself.

We have the services of two men who
will conduct the paper, one the
Alaska and the Canadian. We are, as no man
of humanity shrinking to observe human nature.

It is, for the given time, open to
and its purpose based on the spirit of
immigration. We are strongly in favor of
and sincerely opposed to military effort, especially when
done in the interest of a civil government.

Give Alaska a civil government, through the
aid of the people, and you may soon
expect to hear of civil government.

Our object in publishing
the Alaska Times is to give the
people a paper to make of use,

but highly to gratify if possible.

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affairs about Alaska.

The politics and religion of the
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The Alaska Times has no bias in favor of place, opinion
or in favor of any individual, party or the Town itself.

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will conduct the paper, one the
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of humanity shrinking to observe human nature.

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and its purpose based on the spirit of
immigration. We are strongly in favor of
and sincerely opposed to military effort, especially when
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expect to hear of civil government.

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people a paper to make of use,

but highly to gratify if possible.

to citizens of this town and his friends and compatriots in this city shall do me best. Capt. Gov. H. C. Drayton, Jr. of local. Sayres, Lt. Stevens, Alvarado's Post, Lt. Col. Miller, Chaplain named by Capt. H. C. Drayton to baptize. Was dug up by the Acting Colonel Dr. Drayton on the 10th inst. He arrived from the Province of Leon to the long river the Pococurra, place here. Arriving of day break, he was allowed to pro confundis among the Indians and die on the Pococurra, memory of his friends here. The particulars of his death to him assigned to the General and upon his grant of space, buried in a single day. Death in amphitheatre. In Leon, Oct. 10th on 67th year and 6 days after from Chiloeche de 1817 on the quarter's salute of thirteen short and instant in sounding guns at sunrise over his head. His Corpse was taken and one gun every half hour. His Corpse was taken during the day of the 10th inst. After the General being present and the Commandant conspired in communication to prove that and to command of a salute of 13 instead of 11 and gave from Dono Duquenon. Repeating constantly conduct and propensity, intending to wily. Acting. H. C. Drayton and command of their duty. See Gov. C. Donisthorpe. From Hammings (Lt. Stevens) I waited on Drayton for us having come into his office yesterday Friday night gone Osborne. John Wright to visit it yesterday from Hammings, took the letter bound for him. A trial time agreed and promised.	Collected on the books for Mexico, & Alvarado dated Sept. Government has, until Capt. Drayton came and left me Library, it is reported to contain books in about two counts. Others to ship and adaptant and fine specimens repage, is very scarce and expensive. Departmental. Ships of State are out of the last, last year, by reason a choice is kept. At least, some of them go to Yucatan. Long & Rong. sincerely J. Smith. Gossips and fancies. The inside greatest is repeated up from Donisthorpe's 47th Year. December, now due to William Smith and no Regno will have to pay or die establishment in the City Chile mostly. A prominent and this special commodity in hand or large amount of the English. Rich and Cath. Dept. On the following brands: Hats, Gloves, Small Wallets, butto. Knives, Small Wallets, etc. Drayton's Letter.	Guadalajara Cards. General Doniz. General Trelaw Alvarado's Post. Major Wood on hand to last brand of Books and Signs, also Tex Library, it is reported to contain books in about two counts. Others to ship and adaptant and fine specimens repage, is very scarce and expensive. Honduras Del Norte. If you are out of the last, last year, by reason a choice is kept. At least, some of them go to Yucatan. Long & Rong. sincerely J. Smith. Gossips and fancies. The inside greatest is repeated up from Donisthorpe's 47th Year. 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Drayton always to be found at his office in its confidential government by his own Agent, and ought of the 13, 11, 10, 9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, 1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100, 101, 102, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 108, 109, 110, 111, 112, 113, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121, 122, 123, 124, 125, 126, 127, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 137, 138, 139, 140, 141, 142, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 154, 155, 156, 157, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 165, 166, 167, 168, 169, 170, 171, 172, 173, 174, 175, 176, 177, 178, 179, 180, 181, 182, 183, 184, 185, 186, 187, 188, 189, 190, 191, 192, 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The High School History Recitation

BY R. M. TRYON, UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

In order to determine what a teacher is really doing in any given subject we visit her class-room during a number of recitation periods in that subject. High school teachers are usually willing to stand or fall upon what they do from day to day during the time in which they have full control of the children in the subject or subjects they teach. When the efficiency of their work is judged almost wholly upon how they plan, manage, and conduct a recitation, it certainly behooves them to spend considerable time in thinking out how they can use the recitation period to the best advantage of all concerned in it. To make this thinking the most productive it must be about things conducive to securing definite and measurable results. The purpose of this discussion is to suggest some definite methods of procedure which a teacher may profitably employ in her attempts to improve the technique of her high school history recitations. In the order of their consideration these are: principles governing, fundamental qualities, controlling aims, standards for judging, conditions necessary, management, assignment of the new lesson, forms, the history question, teacher-pupil activity, suggestions and directions for conducting, and direction for observing. Each of these is discussed with reference to its special application to a recitation in high school history.

PRINCIPLES GOVERNING.

There are certain general principles governing every recitation which has any claim to merit. They are the principles of unity, of proportion, and of coherence. Each of these should be mastered by the teacher and applied to her history recitation, just as they are applied in art anywhere. Teaching is an art as well as a science. No teacher will ever acquire a high degree of artistic skill until she deliberately sets about applying the ordinary principles of art to what she is doing. These principles will not appear in her recitation without conscious striving for them. In other words, if the teacher is ever to become an artist in the matter of planning, managing and conducting a recitation in history, she must first master the principles of unity, proportion and coherence, and learn their application to her daily work.

The very nature of the subject-matter of history makes it more difficult to secure unity in a recitation upon historical material than upon material in some other subjects like mathematics or Latin. While the teacher or a pupil is doing the necessary formal work at the board in an algebra exercise, the class as a whole may think out the various steps and processes. The history teacher has few opportunities for such unified thinking. She may have a pupil relate an incident or tell a story, but she is never certain just what the remainder of the class is thinking while this is going on. Yet, even if there are not the opportu-

nities for applying the principle of unity in history teaching as in some other subjects, the teacher can deliberately plan certain unifying exercises. Her lesson plan will usually center around one movement or a certain phase of a movement; she will have all the class read the same presentation of the material upon which her lesson is based; if illustrative source extracts are used, the unifying way is to have a copy for each member of the class—a less satisfactory but more practicable way is for the teacher or some pupil to read the extract while the class attentively and thoughtfully follows. These are but a few of the ways of applying the principle of unity. The class should understand the necessity of this principle and give its co-operation in applying it.

In applying the principle of proportion, the history teacher has a unique opportunity to teach emphasis and proper perspective. Suppose she plans to spend three weeks in teaching the French Revolution. Before the first lesson is assigned she will have the work for the whole period carefully planned in compliance with the principle of proportion which she wishes to apply. If she desires to test her skill in applying this principle in her daily work, she will ask the pupils to write a resume of the period upon its completion. If she finds her pupils emphasizing the facts and phases which she felt most important when planning and teaching the subject, she may rest assured that some success has been attained in the application of the principle of proportion.

One of the pressing present-day problems in high school history is the application of the principle of proportion to the whole field of history. Until the proper proportion has been settled by general agreement, the individual teacher will have to continue to emphasize particular and general fields of history in her own way and according to her own ideas. The point that seems worth making in this connection is that a history teacher must determine far in advance the essentials of a movement or a period which she plans to teach, and then carefully test her success in applying her principles. She may be wrong in her emphasis, but she is certainly succeeding as long as she is doing what she planned to do.

The principle of coherence is more difficult to apply in a single recitation than either of the foregoing. In order to secure its daily application, the teacher will have to make sure that it is embodied in her plans for a series of lessons. Plans for teaching the Reformation will include a lesson or two on its antecedents. If she gives due regard to the principle of cause and effect in planning and teaching a single lesson, she will at the same time be applying the principle of coherence to both her plan and its presentation; if she consciously works for the application of this principle in her daily work, the pupils will unconsciously apply it in theirs—thus resulting

in papers and recitations which will gladden the heart of the English teacher, who daily wishes for pupils who unconsciously apply what she has so faithfully taught. History, above all other subjects, offers the opportunity for the students to use what they have learned in English; but unless the history teacher deliberately plans for such an application, the efforts of the most painstaking instructor in English will not attain results that will reach far beyond her own class room.

FUNDAMENTAL QUALITIES.

There are certain fundamental qualities of a teaching exercise that a history teacher must always keep in mind, if she attains other than mediocre results. These are clearness, force, and fine adaptation. The boy that said a "furlough" was a "mule" is a fine example of the need of clearness. This same boy attempted to prove that he was right by citing the picture of a soldier on a mule with the following label below: "Going Home on a Furlough." The need of clearness is brought home to the teacher every time she reads a set of test papers. In these she finds words used incorrectly, facts wrongly applied, and all sorts of historical monstrosities. The history teacher must plan a multitude of schemes to test the clearness of her own and the text-book's presentation of a subject. The very nature of the subject matter makes this imperative. Pupils must be given every possible opportunity to express in their own way what they have gleaned from various sources. It is only by such a method of procedure that a teacher can feel sure that her presentation of the subject contains the quality of clearness.

The qualities of force and fine adaptation are difficult to secure and more difficult to measure. It is certainly worth while for a high school teacher to strive to make her teaching forceful. Many of the unmeasurable results of her work depend upon this quality. Few lasting impressions are ever made by a teacher whose recitations are continuously lacking in it. A dead history recitation is certainly to be avoided. A study so teeming with life must be forcefully presented. By conscious striving an unforceful history teacher may in time acquire considerable skill in injecting force into her recitations.

Fine adaptation is a necessary prerequisite to the two foregoing qualities. If what I am teaching is not adapted to age, interest and capacity of those I am teaching, it will certainly be difficult to make it either clear or forceful. The great problem of adapting history to children in both the elementary and secondary schools is far from a satisfactory solution. It still remains for the individual teacher to take the material outlined in a course of study or a text-book and adapt it to those she is teaching. She can be materially aided in this matter, if both syllabus and text strive to select and discuss only the topics and movement which are adaptable to the pupils for whom they are intended.

CONTROLLING AIMs.

History teachers are often accused of doing indefinite teaching. This criticism has resulted in some wholesome efforts to make their work more definite. This is accomplished by setting up specific aims for a series of lessons or even a single lesson. If a teacher sets out to teach the American Revolution with a very definite aim in mind and tests her results strictly according to this aim, she will escape the criticism of indefiniteness so common and so just nowadays.

Besides the controlling aim that the teacher has in mind in teaching any phase of history, there are certain specific aims common to all recitation. These she will do well to master and follow rather religiously. They are no other than the common ones of testing, teaching and drill. Whatever else she does with the assignment made the day before, the history teacher must certainly test the pupil's preparation of what she has assigned them; and, since knowledge of history and historical movements will always remain one of the legitimate aims of all history teaching, she will need to test the actual knowledge her pupils are acquiring as they proceed along the historical way. If she is unacquainted with the class, she will need to spend much time in testing methods of study, since it is only by this means that she can be able to locate improper methods and supplant them with proper ones. In this testing period of the recitation she should be able to diagnose the cause of both general and individual failures. She can also test her own skill in applying the principles and qualities advocated above. Such a test will often bring disappointments, but will in the end work for the good of all concerned.

The history teacher's real skill is best seen in how well she is able to do the second general aim or purpose of the recitation listed above. In the teaching phase of the class exercise she finds an opportunity to do what in reality she is paid to do. To teach does not necessarily mean to do all the reciting. This may be advisable occasionally, but not often. Among other things, high school history teaching means giving the pupils opportunities to express themselves concerning things they have read, correcting wrong impressions wherever they exist, helping pupils master and organize related historical facts, giving additional information which the teacher has acquired through reading and travel, having at hand at the opportune time illustrative materials to make abstract and general statements concrete and full of meaning, developing certain principles underlying history study, and inspiring pupils to better efforts not only in history, but in all phases of their work both in and out of school.

In spite of the fact that she runs the risk of being dry and formal, the history teacher must spend some time in actual drill work. Before this can be profitably done she will need to have definitely in mind the phases of the work which she hopes to make automatic. Too much is often attempted along this line with the accompanying results of permanently ac-

complishing little or nothing. Certain dates must be forever learned; certain men must become very familiar; certain maps must be produced from memory; certain large movements must be known and remembered in a connected story. For example, the writer when teaching United States history in the high school used to drill his pupils until they could give the date of the admission of each State into the Union. This might not have been worth doing, yet at the same time it certainly had the virtue of definiteness, and gave the high school graduate some knowledge which was of little burden, and, as the teacher believed, some use.

STANDARDS FOR JUDGING.

It is unfortunate for any subject during these days of so much scientific measuring that it has no definite criteria for testing results. History is woefully lacking in any objective standards for testing the efficiency of the instruction therein; and the individual history recitation is more woefully lacking in this particular than the subject itself. Professor McMurray in his examination of the character of the instruction in the New York City schools rather arbitrarily proposed four standards for judging the efficiency of a recitation in any given subject. According to these proposals a recitation was good in the degree that it offered the pupils the opportunity for motivation, evaluation, initiation and organization.¹ If any given history recitation offered ample occasions for the application of these four standards it was an efficient one. More recently, Mr. Williams, of Indiana University, has proposed certain standards which were constructed with history especially in mind. For a recitation in history to be efficient, according to Mr. Williams, it must offer abundant opportunity for the students to do concrete and objective thinking, apply historic truth to social situations, analyze and interpret historical phenomena, and use historical judgment.² Mr. L. E. Taft, who has made some little study of the recitation as a factor in producing social efficiency, says that a good recitation whether in history or what not should involve the following: a definite and social aim, knowledge of how to study, a great amount of pupil-activity, much responsibility and independence on the part of the pupils, a searching consideration of values, free conversation and exchange of ideas, a critical attitude on the part of the pupil, a permanent increase in the pupils' knowledge, much thinking and judging on the part of the pupils, and finally, much opportunity to acquire and apply a knowledge of the use of books.³ All these proposals are good beginnings on the solution of a difficult problem, but nothing more. We are much in need of some standards of value based upon scientific investigation rather than mere opinion.

¹ "Elementary School Standards," p. 3.

² "Standards for Judging History Instruction," in *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, VI, 235 ff.

³ "The Recitation as a Factor in Producing Social Efficiency," in "Education," XXXIV, 145 ff.

CONDITIONS NECESSARY.

Before a teacher can expect to meet any standards whatsoever for judging her history instruction, she must surround herself and the class with conditions necessary to a good recitation in history. Sometimes this is in her power and sometimes it is not. Professor Betts, in his little monograph on "The Recitation," suggests the following conditions necessary to a good recitation in any subject: freedom from distractions by the teacher, the pupils, and the outside world; interest and enthusiasm on the part of teacher and pupils; carefully planned work on the part of the teacher and carefully prepared work on the part of the pupils; high standards; a spirit of co-operation and sympathy; and pupils surrounded with suitable material equipment.⁴ All these are both desirable and necessary, and most of them are under the direct control of the teacher. The two exceptions are distractions from the outside world and material equipment. To attain the first of these, State regulations sometimes come to her assistance, but if she gets what is due her subject in the line of maps, charts, pictures, bulletins, books, diagrams, models and magazines, she will often need to use all the persuasive powers at her command to convince superintendents and school boards that she deserves a laboratory for her subject just as much as the physics, chemistry, manual training and domestic science teachers do for theirs; and that, to do anything above mediocre work, she must have her share of the money which is now being spent on equipping laboratories, manual training departments, and cooking establishments in the high school.

MANAGEMENT.

The ordinary principles of "scientific management" are certainly as applicable to a high school history recitation as to the management of a farm, a shop, a store, or a household. Professor Bobbitt, in discussing the application of some principles of scientific management to the problem of city-school systems, mentions among others the following principle as especially applicable to city schools. "The worker must be kept supplied with detailed instruction as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the appliances to be used."⁵ If one substitutes the word "student" for the word "worker" in this quotation, one has an excellent principle of guidance for the high school history teacher. When students are kept supplied with definite instructions as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed, and the materials to be used, they will work with a definiteness hitherto unknown. Recitation standards must be well understood by all concerned; the general method of procedure must be no secret of the teacher's; the direction for preparing

⁴ "The Recitation," 81 ff.

⁵ "Some General Principles of Management Applied to the Problems of City-School Systems," in 12th Year Book of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, 89.

the work for the daily recitation must be so definite that no one can fail to understand and meet them; and finally, the maps, charts, reference books, and all other class room equipment must be as familiar to the pupils as to the teacher. Few will question the validity of these statements. Their application is sure to result in tangible rewards.

Besides applying the foregoing principle of ordinary business management, the history teacher will have to master some of the technique of history-recitation management. By this is meant that she will have to learn to utilize at the proper time and in the proper place all the resources at her command. A special report has been planned to illuminate a certain point in the lesson. Able manipulation brings this forth at the opportune time. An illustrative source extract is to be read when a definite point in the recitation is reached. Efficient direction sees to it that this source is at hand and read. A certain picture, sketch, chart, or what not is to be used at a point in the lessons. Skilled management has these at hand and uses them at the appropriate time and place. To scientifically and effectively manage a history recitation is not the work of a neophyte. Skill in it comes only through much experience and careful attention to all phases of the process.

ASSIGNMENT OF THE LESSON.

One of the most important things that a teacher does in any given history recitation is the assignment of the work upon which the next one is to be based. Just when and how this is to be done and the amount of time devoted to it are matters that the teacher must settle for herself. It is likely safe to assume that few history teachers spend too much time in assigning the lesson; and that fewer still make the assignment too specific, especially for younger pupils. Considerable time and a rich store of schemes are required to make a history assignment sufficiently specific, clearly comprehensive and adequately appealing. The following is a list of some things that a history teacher might do in assigning a lesson—the specific thing will, of course, always be determined by the character and advancement of the class: Call attention to the most important points in the advanced lessons; outline the lesson for the pupils; explain difficult points in the new lesson; give leading questions; show pupils how to make their own outlines; suggest definite references, pictures, and maps for study; develop the outline of the advanced lesson with the aid of the class; place the difficult words on the blackboard and pronounce them; read the advanced lesson over with the pupils, noting the large topics, and asking them to prepare the new lesson according to the outline thus made; simply outline enough of the lesson to show the pupil how to study it, and leave the remainder for them to do; assign by topics with little discussion or explanation; and give a list of topics with general references, and citations to special references, indicating at the same time the relative importance of the topics. It is often desirable with beginners in high school history to read the lesson over with them one day and ask

them to recite upon it the following day. Good general rules to follow are: set definite problem for mastery; give definite instructions as to what to learn and where and how to acquire it; and never pass to the work of the recitation proper until all clearly understand just what is desired for the succeeding period.

FORMS.

Some five years ago, Mr. Walter Libby, after visiting a great many high school history recitations in the capacity of a high school inspector, summarized them under the following forms:

1. Combination of the *recitation* and *oral method*. The emphasis in this case was on the *recitation* method. The teacher questioned the class sharply on the material prepared, and when necessary filled in with extra material, her own statements being a link in the development of the lesson. There was no digression or lack of continuity. The line of cause and effect held things together. Coherence was much in evidence.

2. A combination of the *recitation* and *oral method* with the emphasis on the latter. In this form of the *recitation* the *text-book* material was not emphasized. The teacher did most of the talking, using much illustrative material to make her points clear. Enough questions were asked merely to get the subject introduced.

3. Topical recitation. This sort of a *recitation* was conducted by means of special reports by the pupils on especially assigned topics. The *text-book* was little used.

4. The study recitation. Here the pupils worked with books open, wrote reports, drew pictures, made maps, read in reference books, and other things characteristic of the laboratory method, of which, indeed, this form of *recitation* is an application.

5. Inductive recitation. An outline was given for this type of *recitation*. The pupils recited on the material suggested in the outline. The material was often rearranged and supplemented. Relations were carefully worked out and generalizations made. All facts on a point were brought forward and carefully interpreted.

6. Test recitation. In this form the teacher asked question after question. She gave no information. The story of the book was reconstructed bit by bit. The information was piece-meal. It was simply a test of memory with no development. A superabundance of memory questions.

7. Text-book recitation. Here both the teacher and pupils had the text open. It seemed to be used mostly by unprepared teachers. It was absolutely lifeless and demanded little on the part of anyone.⁶

While Mr. Libby has given us an excellent summary of the different forms of the high school history recitation, yet there seem to be two rather important, but likely rather uncommon ones, that he did not see. These are what one might call the individual recitation and the recitation wholly in charge

⁶ "Forms of High School Recitation," in "Education," XXVIII, 601 ff.

of the class. The writer has used the first very extensively in both elementary and high school history classes. For example, in teaching the Crusades, the Reformation, the French Revolution, and similar topics, it was understood in the beginning that each member of the class would be required to formulate in his own words a connected discussion of these topics and recite the same to the satisfaction of the instructor. The class as a whole was dismissed while these individual recitations were going on and set to work on some advanced problem.

The second form, which Mr. Libby evidently did not see, is described by Miss Lotta Clark in her article on "A Good Way to Teach History."⁷ Here one finds the socialized recitation pure and simple. All the assigning, conducting and reciting the work was done by the pupils—the teacher keeping herself in the background all the while, yet at the same time remaining an unconscious director of all the operations of the class period.

THE HISTORY QUESTION.

There are three things connected with the question as a means of attaining efficiency in high school history instruction, to which the teacher should continually give her attention. These are the quality, number and kind of questions she is daily using. Certain essential qualities of good history questions should always be uppermost when a teacher is formulating them. If a history question stimulates reflection, is adapted to the pupils' experience, and calls forth a well-rounded thought clearly and logically expressed, it certainly has some elements of superior quality. In order to make sure that her questions will contain these desirable qualities, a history teacher must embody in her plan for the day six or eight thought-provoking questions, calling for discrimination and associations, based on facts contained in the lesson.

Just how many questions to ask during a forty-minute history period is difficult to determine. The form of the recitation determines this. In an inductive type the teacher will certainly ask more questions than in a topical one. Some idea of how many questions history teachers should ask might be obtained from the number they are really asking. Miss Stevens, in gathering material for her study of the question, visited some twenty history recitations, and actually counted the number of questions asked during a forty-minute period. She found the following, each number standing for the number of questions asked during one recitation: 41, 142, 125, 94, 64, 90, 60, 53, 61, 97, 47, 66, 93, 61, 76, 88, 80, 128, 68, and 90.⁸ Few teachers will dissent from the opinion that in the majority of these cases too many questions were asked, if each one actually conformed to all the foregoing qualities of a good question.

If attention is directed to the kind of questions the foregoing history teachers asked, one finds an answer to the query of why they asked so many. Both Miss

Stevens and Mr. Taft gave some attention to the kind of questions a few history teachers actually ask. In eleven history recitations visited, these investigators found the following, the first number in each pair standing for the total number of questions asked and the second for the number of memory questions: 41, 29; 66, 60; 90, 75; 94, 74; 125, 87; 142, 103; 85, 85; 82, 70; 82, 50; 68, 60; 87, 72.⁹ The fact that the number of memory questions was considerably higher in the history recitation than in some others, led Miss Stevens to remark that no other object in the curriculum adheres to the text-book so closely for content, organization and method as history; and that no other subject confines itself so steadfastly to facts.¹⁰

Mr. Taft¹¹ tabulated material on the following kinds of questions: questions suggesting the answer, thought questions, double, triple and more than three questions, memory, and natural questions. He found considerable use of answer-suggesting, but very little of the natural and thought-provoking question. Both his and Miss Stevens' findings seem to indicate that some teachers are giving but little attention to the mastery of the art of questioning as a phase of teaching technique.

TEACHER-PUPIL ACTIVITY.

The problem of the proper distribution of the time of a recitation period in history between the pupils and the teacher is yet among the many unstandardized phases of high school history teaching. Any answer to the inquiry will be based on the type of the recitation in question. If the lecture method is used, the teacher will of necessity consume most all of the time; if the social co-operation type, as reported by Miss Clark, is utilized she will be kept in the background, consuming little or no time. Since these are extreme types, it remains to be determined what the legitimate proportion in an ordinarily conducted history recitation should be.

A partial answer to the question at issue may be found in present practices. How much of the time of a history recitation are teachers actually consuming, and how much are they permitting their pupils to consume? Few attempts have been made to answer these queries. Both of the studies to which reference has already been made contain some material along this line. Measured by the number of spoken words, determined by stenographic reports of eleven history recitations, Miss Stevens and Mr. Taft¹² found the following percentages of teacher-pupil activity—the first number in each pair expressing the per cent. of teacher-activity in a recitation, and the second the per cent. of pupil-activity in the same recitation: 80, 20; 57, 42; 59, 41; 75, 25; 62, 38; 58, 42; 67, 33; 49, 51; 54, 46; 62, 38; 58, 42.

The interesting fact about the history recitations represented in the foregoing tabulation is that in but one case was the per cent. of pupil-activity greater

⁷ "School Review," XVII, 255 ff.

⁸ Op. cit., 48.

⁹ Op. cit., 147.

¹⁰ Stevens, p. 22; Taft, p. 147.

¹¹ "The Question as a Measure of Efficiency in Instruction." 11.

than that of teacher—the average for the eleven recitations being: teacher, 62 per cent. and pupil, 38. In minutes these equal 24.8 and 15.2. With thirty in a class, which is not uncommon, it will be seen that each pupil would get a half of a minute out of a total of forty. If the teacher could be sure that the pupils' minds were actually active during all the 24.8 minutes she is talking, there would be some justification for her using nearly two-thirds of the entire time. Adequate tests have not yet been devised to determine this matter. In the meantime, it would seem safe for her to give the pupils as much of the recitation time as consistency, common-sense, and the type of recitation demand.

SUGGESTIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR CONDUCTING.

The writer has found from experience in conducting practice teaching in high school history that it is necessary to furnish the pupil-teacher with rather specific direction concerning the planning, conducting, and managing of a recitation. The following is a copy of some suggestions and directions for conducting a recitation in high school history that have been used in this connection with gratifying results.

SOME SUGGESTIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR CONDUCTING A HIGH SCHOOL RECITATION.

I. Type of recitation.

1. History recitations may assume various forms. Determine in advance the form you are to use and make your plans accordingly.
2. The form of the recitation will determine the amount of time you yourself will consume. Keep this in mind and do not rob the pupils of time legitimately theirs.

II. Review of the previous lesson.

1. Determine just what points in the previous lesson or lessons you wish to review. Indicate these under method of procedure in your lesson plan.
2. Have in mind just how much time you intend to give to the previous lesson or lessons, to the new lesson, and to the assignments of next day's lesson. Make a practice of adhering to this schedule rather rigidly.

III. The new lesson.

1. Determine how it is to be introduced. Keep in mind its relation to the previous lesson or lessons.
2. Type of question: Attempt to keep a reasonable proportion of thought and memory questions. Avoid too many direct questions. Guard yourself against the use of double, triple, and a cumbersome wording of ordinary questions. Better write out six or eight leading questions in advance. Let them appear under method of procedure in your lesson plan.
3. The amount of talking and explaining done by the teacher will usually be small in comparison to that done by the pupils.
4. Each lesson will ordinarily have a leading problem. Pupils should have the main prob-

lem clearly in mind in order that they may more easily grasp the main points developed during the recitation period.

5. A summary at the close of each lesson as well as at the conclusion of a series of lessons is usually worth while. Keep these in mind.

IV. Assignment of the next day's work.

1. Specific directions will always be given for the study of the new lesson. Often some will need to be given for the review of the previous lesson or lessons.
2. Allow yourself ample time for this phase of the work. Be sure that the pupils understand what is demanded of them and later see that they come up to these demands according to their best ability.
3. Collateral reading should be carefully assigned. One good way to do this is to make out cards and post them in the library. Assignments of special topics may be given either in class or placed on slips and passed out to individual pupils.

V. General management.

1. Maps, diagrams, pictures and other illustrative materials should be in constant use. Those for the day's lesson must be arranged before the recitation begins.
2. Attention and interest must be kept up. A sign of both is voluntary discussion, questions and objections. When these are lacking the cause must be sought, and some remedy applied.
3. Dull, diffident or unprepared members of the class must not be neglected. Special methods may need to be devised for these.
4. Careful attention must always be given by the teacher to mistakes in English on the part of the students. The teacher's own grammar and pronunciation may need some attention.

DIRECTIONS FOR OBSERVING.

It is more or less a waste of time to send or take prospective history teachers to visit a history recitation without very definite directions concerning what to observe and note. Even with definite direction the value of such work is often questioned. To obviate this objection, a plan has been devised at the University of Wisconsin High School to make pupil-teachers out of those who formerly did nothing but observe. Under this scheme the prospective teacher is expected to be always ready to do the next thing in the recitation in which she is participating as a pupil-teacher. This next thing may be either to recite or teach as the regular teacher directs.

Whatever the virtues of the Wisconsin plan may prove to be, many of us who have to do with the training of high school history teachers will have to continue to have them observe in the old way. If results proportionate to the time spent in this work are attained, some very definite instructions and directions must be given the observers. The writer uses two methods to make this work definite. One is to simply ask each member of the observing group to take

down, if possible, everything that is done by the teacher and the pupils. On the basis of this material, the pupils are later able to ask questions of interpretation, the answers to which would contain the important features of the recitation. The other method is to give each pupil who is to observe, a copy of definite questions and directions, on which to base later reports and discussions. The following is a list of such instructions which the writer has made up from various sources. It is much like the directions for conducting a recitation given above. In fact, it is meant to prepare pupils to actually do the thing they are observing another do.

DIRECTIONS FOR OBSERVATION WORK IN HIGH SCHOOL HISTORY.

I. Review of the previous lesson or lessons.

1. How was the previous lesson treated? Was the review mainly done by the teacher, or did the pupils contribute their share?
2. What points in the previous lesson were particularly emphasized? How was the relation and significance of events handled?
3. How much of the period was given up to the review?

II. The new lesson.

1. What relation did the new lesson have to the previous one?
2. Questioning: Did questions call for thought as well as facts? Did all pupils feel responsible for every question? Were the questions fairly distributed so that many pupils were called upon? Proportion of direct questions? Did the pupils seem to understand and follow the questions?
3. Note the relative amount of talking by the teacher and the pupils. Any provision for individual differences? Were duller pupils neglected? What methods were used in case of dull, diffident or unprepared members of the class? Any evidence of fast pupils marking time, or slow pupils being dragged along?
4. Incentives, motives, interest and attention: How was attention or interest shown by the class (voluntary discussion, questions, objections, etc.)? If interest and attention were lacking, explain the cause. If pupils were interested, was their interest due to the subject-matter itself, the teacher's personality, or to tricks and devices in method?
5. Leading problem or problems in the new lesson: What were the main points made in developing the problem or problems? Were text-books used? One or several? Did the recitation on the text-book material consist of a repetition of the text, explanation of difficulties, interpretations, amplification, or supplementing, or criticizing?
6. Management of the collateral work: Were reference books used? How, as primary sources of information or training in library

work? Was there a definite and economical assignment of reference work? Were notes on reading required? Did pupils make contributions from their individual readings?

7. Notebook and illustrative materials: Were notebooks required? Character of exercises? Character, amount and use made of maps, pictures, charts, diagrams, etc.?
8. Summary: How was summary made at the close of the lesson? Did it touch on vital points?

III. The assignment.

1. Was care taken in making the assignment? Did it include work for review of previous lesson or lessons as well as the new lesson? Did it provide definite problems so that the pupils understood exactly what they were expected to do? Any special attempt to arouse interest in the assignment work? Any anticipation of difficulties by the teacher? Any preliminary treatment by lecture or conversation? Any supervised study? How much? How organized?
2. What special forms did the assignment take? (a) problems; (b) topics; (c) detailed questions; (d) pages? Was collateral reading assigned? How and how much? How much time was given to the assignment?

IV. Some general phases of the recitation.

1. Testing results: Were pupils held strictly responsible for outside preparation? Was the testing of their preparation set apart or mixed in with other phases of the recitation? Were pupils kept informed of their successes or failures? Were they tested whether they had learned their lessons or were they tested as to their ability to apply and interpret?
2. Lecturing: Did the teacher contribute anything by lecturing? How much? Formal or informal? Justified? Did the pupils take notes?
3. Principles and qualities: Were the principles of unity, proportion and coherence applied in the lesson? Did it contain the qualities of clearness, force and fine adaptation?

The various phases of the high school history recitation considered in the foregoing discussion are all important factors in the technique of good history teaching. In time the good teacher will apply most of them unconsciously. Born teachers may be able to apply them from the very beginning. But since the supply of born teachers is never equal to the demand, we shall have to continue to make up the deficiency. One important phase of this making is the mastery of the technique of the recitation by those in the making. It is the business of departments having to do with the training of high school history teachers to see that their output has this important training, and the professional duty of principals and supervisor to see that this training really functions in actual practice.

Testing the Efficiency of Teachers and Librarians

Through the courtesy of Dr. William H. Allen, Director of the Institute for Public Service (51 Chambers street, New York City), the MAGAZINE is permitted to publish the "Wisconsin Library Score Card," which appears on this and the following page. While the card contains a number of points applicable to librarians only, it is valuable in many ways for the school teacher and the school administrator. To the teacher it indicates the elements of personality

and professional training which make for success or failure. For the administrator it furnishes a guide for an honest estimate of the teacher's work. Teachers themselves will do well to study the card carefully and determine their own points of excellence or deficiency. After all, few things are so valuable for the teacher as the ability to stand off from one's self and inspect one's own work as though it were the work of another.

WISCONSIN LIBRARY SCORE CARD ON FIELD WORK

Personality (check grade for each point so far as observed)

Enthusiastic:	very	moderately	little	lacking
Sympathetic:	very	moderately	little	harsh
Even tempered:	always	fairly	not very	irritable
Tactful:	very	fairly	not very	blundering
Adaptable:	very	moderately	not very	inflexible
Sense of humor:	much	moderate	little	unduly serious
Resourceful:	very	moderately	not very	dependent
Industrious:	very	moderately	not very	Indolent
Dignified:	always	moderately	not very	undignified
Personal neatness (dress, etc.):	very	moderate	not very	slovenly
Courteous:	always	generally	not very	discourteous
Manners:	gracious	fair	common	rude or boisterous
Winning: appeals to adults	very	fairly	not very	antagonizing
Winning: appeals to children	very	fairly	indifferent	repelling

Professional fitness (check grade for each point so far as observed)

Systematic:	very	good	fair	disorderly
Punctual:	always	quite	fairly	tardy
Accurate:	very	quite	fairly	inaccurate
Rapid worker:	very	quite	fairly	slow
Neat worker:	very	quite	fairly	careless
Reliable:	very	quite so	little	irresponsible
Realizes value of detail:	much	fairly	hardly	not at all
Reacts on suggestions:	quickly	fairly	slowly	refuses
Takes criticism:	in good spirit	fair	poor	resents
Initiative:	excellent	good	some	none at all
Loyal:	very	fairly	hardly	disloyal
Memory:	excellent	good	fair	forgetful
Power of observation:	excellent	good	fair	unobservant
Interested in work:	very much	fairly	blasé	lacking

How do you rank student's work in the following: (Check grade for work done)

Charging books:	excellent	good	fair	many errors
Slipping books:	excellent	good	fair	many errors
Helping patrons select books:	excellent	suggestive	fair	helpless
Collecting fines:	excellent	good	fair	inefficient
Keeping statistics:	excellent	good	fair	inaccurate
Mechanical work:	excellent	good	fair	helpless
Accessioning:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Classification:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Cataloguing:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Alphabetizing:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Reference:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Book selection:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Story telling:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Publicity:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Work with schools:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Mending:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Preparation for bindery:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Picture work:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Inventory:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Typewriting:	excellent	good	fair	poor
Library hand:	excellent	good	fair	poor

WISCONSIN LIBRARY SCORE CARD (Continued)

Good points that will make for student's success (check or underscore all that may apply)

Good health	Executive ability	Disposition
Belief in work	Good technical work	Responsibility
Knowledge of subject	Good mechanical work	Education
Business principles	Professional attitude	Experience
Address	Cheerfulness	Interest in people
Intelligence	Wins co-operation	Knowledge of books
Culture	Stimulating to associates	Appreciation of literature

(Add other characteristics observed and not named here)

Weak points that will make for student's failure (check or underscore any that may apply)

Poor health	Lack of promptness	Bluff
Nervousness	Blasé	Insincerity
Languidness	Immaturity	Diffidence
Lack of interest	Forbidding appearance	Personal appearance
Lack of sympathy with people	Inaccuracy	Antagonizes people
Poor technical work	Talks too much	Lack of culture and knowledge
Poor mechanical work	Self-centered	of books
Disorderly	Aggressiveness	Questions authority

(Add other characteristics observed and not named here)

Would you care to have this student for an assistant? Yes..... No..... Please state frankly

whether the presence of this student has been of any benefit to your library
of real assistance..... a hindrance

General remarks:

Signature

Normal School Relation to High School Teaching

REPORT OF COMMITTEE OF MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION PRESENTED AT
NASHVILLE, APRIL 28, 1916.

At the annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association held at Omaha in May, 1913, the Committee on Certification of High School Teachers of History, in the report which they submitted at that time, recommended among other things that a special committee be appointed to consider the place of the normal school in preparing high school history teachers. The recommendation was acted upon favorably by the executive committee of this association, and President James A. James appointed the following normal school men and women to serve as a special committee on the place of the normal school in the preparation of high school history teachers: E. M. Violette, Kirksville, Mo., chairman; Sara M. Riggs, Cedar Falls, Ia.; Pelagius M. Williams, Emporia, Kan.; Edward C. Page, DeKalb, Ill.; S. E. Thomas, Charleston, Ill.; Carl E. Pray, Ypsilanti, Mich.

This committee at once drafted a questionnaire and sent it to the 150 normal schools of the country that are supported in part or wholly by State funds. It was not sent to city normal schools nor to normal schools for Negro teachers.

By dint of persistent effort the committee succeeded in getting returns from 97 of the 150 schools to which the questionnaire was sent. These 97 schools are lo-

cated in 40 different States. Their distribution among the States is as follows:

Alabama, 2; Arkansas, 1; Arizona, 1; California, 5; Colorado, 2; Connecticut, 2; Georgia, 1; Idaho, 1; Indiana, 1; Illinois, 5; Iowa, 1; Kansas, 3; Kentucky, 1; Missouri, 4; Minnesota, 5; Maine, 1; Massachusetts, 7; Michigan, 3; Maryland, 1; New York, 7; New Hampshire, 2; North Dakota, 1; New Mexico, 1; Nebraska, 2; New Jersey, 1; North Carolina, 1; Oregon, 1; Ohio, 2; Oklahoma, 4; Pennsylvania, 7; Rhode Island, 1; South Carolina, 1; South Dakota, 3; Texas, 2; Tennessee, 1; Vermont, 2; Virginia, 1; West Virginia, 4; Washington, 1; Wisconsin, 5.

From an examination of the returns it was readily discovered that the normal schools of the country might be divided into three groups; first, those that confine themselves wholly to the preparation of elementary school teachers; second, those that give practically their entire attention to the preparation of elementary school teachers and prepare high school teachers only incidentally; third, those that make a distinct effort to prepare high school teachers as well as elementary school teachers.

It was also found that the 97 schools that responded to the questionnaire were divided almost evenly among these three groups, 31 in the first group, 33 in the

second, and 33 in the third. The geographical distribution of the 97 schools in these three groups is as follows:

I. The 31 schools reporting that they are confining themselves wholly to the preparation of elementary school teachers, represent 13 different States. The number of such schools in each of these 13 States is as follows:

California, 5; Connecticut, 2; Colorado, 1; Idaho, 1; Massachusetts, 7; Minnesota, 5; New York, 2; New Hampshire, 2; North Dakota, 1; Oregon, 1; Ohio, 1; Rhode Island, 1; Vermont, 2.

The normal schools in California, Minnesota and Vermont are compelled by law to confine themselves to the work of preparing teachers for the elementary schools.

Of these 31 schools, 7 are in 3 Mississippi Valley States, Minnesota, North Dakota and Ohio; 16 are in 6 Eastern States, Connecticut, Massachusetts, New York, New Hampshire, Rhode Island and Vermont; 8 are in 4 Western States, California, Colorado, Idaho and Oregon.

II. The 33 schools reporting that they are giving practically their entire attention to the preparation of elementary school teachers and are preparing high school teachers only incidentally, represent 16 States. The number of such schools in each of these 16 States is as follows:

Alabama, 2; Arkansas, 1; Arizona, 1; Georgia, 1; Illinois, 3; Maryland, 1; Michigan, 1; Maine, 1; New York, 4; New Mexico, 1; New Jersey, 1; Pennsylvania, 7; South Dakota, 3; Virginia, 1; Washington, 1; West Virginia, 4.

Of these 33 schools, 8 are in 4 Mississippi Valley States, Arkansas, Illinois, Michigan, and South Dakota; 22 are in 9 Eastern States, Alabama, Georgia, Maryland, Maine, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Virginia, West Virginia; 3 are in 3 Western States, Arizona, New Mexico and Washington.

III. The 33 schools reporting that they make a definite effort to prepare high school teachers as well as elementary school teachers, represent 17 States. The number of such schools in each of these 17 States is as follows:

Colorado, 1; Iowa, 1; Indiana, 1; Illinois, 2; Kentucky, 1; Kansas, 3; Missouri, 4; Michigan, 2; New York, 1; Nebraska, 2; North Carolina, 1; Oklahoma, 4; Ohio, 1; South Carolina, 1; Texas, 2; Tennessee, 1; Wisconsin, 5.

Of these 33 schools, 29 are in 13 Mississippi Valley States, Iowa, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, Kansas, Missouri, Michigan, Nebraska, Oklahoma, Ohio, Texas, Tennessee, Wisconsin; 3 are in 3 Eastern States, New York, North Carolina, South Carolina; 1 is in 1 Western State, Colorado.

From this tabulation it is readily seen that groups 1 and 2 are made up largely of the normal schools in the Eastern and Western States and that group 3 is almost altogether made up of the normal schools in the Mississippi Valley. In other words the normal schools of the Eastern and Western States are given

largely to the work of preparing elementary school teachers, while the normal schools of the Mississippi Valley are undertaking to prepare high school teachers as well as elementary school teachers. It may be assumed that if the returns had been received from all of the 150 schools to which the questionnaire was sent, the proportionate distribution of the 150 among the three groups would be about the same as it is in the case of the 97 schools.

The marked variations among normal schools as regards this one matter is suggestive of the fundamental differences that exist among these institutions, and of the difficulty of giving a definition of a normal school that will apply to them all. The definition of a college has long been agreed upon. A college must have a certain amount of endowment or fixed support; it must have a faculty of at least a certain number and an equipment of a certain character; it must require of its students a certain amount of work, usually 120 semester hours during a period of four years. Every institution that purports to be a college can be readily measured by the standards that have been widely accepted.

But this is not the case with normal schools because there are so many different kinds of normal schools and because there is no agreement among normal school authorities as to what the standards should be for such institutions. A few normal schools are virtually high schools with a department of education or pedagogy attached; such schools constitute one extreme type. A few are attempting to offer a four years teachers college course beyond the four years high school course; they constitute the other extreme type. The majority of them however fall between these two extremes and are undertaking to do two or three years of teachers college work beyond the four years high school course. Moreover most of the normal schools have large preparatory departments covering or paralleling the entire high school course.

Since therefore there is no agreement among educational authorities as to the definition of a normal school and since there is no uniformity among normal schools as regards their standards and requirements, it follows that the problem before this committee is a very complicated one. Fortunately however the problem is somewhat simplified by the fact that fully one third of the normal schools of the country confine their efforts exclusively to the preparation of elementary school teachers, and another third give practically all their energy to the same work and prepare high school teachers only incidentally. With two thirds of the normal schools thus eliminated from our survey, the question before the committee resolves itself into this form: 1. What preparation should be made by high school history teachers for their work? 2. To what extent do those normal schools that definitely undertake to prepare history teachers for high schools succeed in giving their students the preparation that conforms to the standards which this committee approves?

As regards the first of these two propositions, this committee would accept or approve no standard lower than that which has been set up by the committee of this association on the certification of high school history teachers. A brief restatement of the most essential parts of that report as made in May, 1913, may be well made here so that the position of this committee may be clearly understood.

The committee on the certification of high school history teachers declared that the Mississippi Valley Historical Association ought not to countenance the appointment in our high schools of persons who have not completed a standard college course which later in the report was defined as one whose studies stretch over four years and aggregate about 120 semester hours or points. The committee held that those who intend to teach history in the high schools should give from 25 to 40 of the 120 semester hours or points to history. Although there was no attempt to prescribe hard and fast regulations which should always be observed in detail, the committee suggested that these 25 to 40 semester hours devoted to history might be distributed as follows: 1. Survey or general introductory courses during the first two years—such as European or medieval and modern history in the freshman year, and American history in the sophomore year—to the amount of 12 hours; 2. Advanced or special courses, 20 hours; 3. Methods of teaching history, 2 to 4 hours; 4. Pro-seminary courses, 2 to 6 hours. In addition to this work the committee recommended that prospective high school history teachers should devote some time to subjects related to history, such as political science, political economy and sociology. It also took account of the preparation in psychology and pedagogy commonly fixed by university regulation or State law and required of all candidates for the teaching profession. (*Proceedings of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association, 1912-13, pages 23-32.*)

The committee on the place of the normal school in the preparation of high school history teachers is in substantial agreement with the standards set up by the committee whose report has just been summarized. There may be good reasons for differing with that committee in some of the details of its recommendations. For example, it may be better for those who are preparing to teach history in the high schools to spend more than 12 semester hours upon survey or general courses in history. The committee on certification itself expressed some doubts upon that very point. Since nearly all the high schools are organized nowadays with three or four year courses in history, it may be quite advisable for those who are preparing to teach these courses to pursue college courses that cover in a general way the same fields that are studied in the high school courses. If instead of 12 hours being spent in pursuing survey or general courses, something like 18 or 24 hours are devoted to that sort of work, then the number of hours recommended for special courses would be correspondingly cut down.

Again, there may be some doubt as to the ad-

visability or desirability of introducing any pro-seminary courses in the undergraduate work. Even admitting that such courses would be beneficial to the prospective high school history teacher, there would be no justification in considering them absolutely necessary. The function of the high school teacher is that of teaching, and not of investigation. Pro-seminary courses in history are therefore not to be considered as indispensable in the preparation of high school history teachers.

Notwithstanding the difference in details, this committee agrees in general with the committee on certification as to the requirements it laid down. The candidate for a position as teacher of history in the high school ought to have completed a standard college or teachers college course of four years whose studies stretch over four years and aggregate about 120 semester hours, and he ought to have devoted 25 to 40 of the 120 semester hours to history.

As far as general requirements for high school teachers are concerned, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is in accord with the committee on certification and with this special committee. The standard of the North Central Association which is published in its proceedings every year says that "the minimum attainment of teachers of academic subjects shall be equivalent to graduation from a college belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. This requires the completion of a four years course of study or 120 semester hours, in advance of a standard four years high school course, and includes at least eleven hours in education."

Gradually this standard of preparation is being adopted in the high schools and it is becoming more and more difficult for one to secure or to hold a position in the better high schools unless he has attained to this standard. But there are at present many high school history teachers doing very good and effective work whose preparation, both general and special, is less than that which has just been stated and approved. Many of these teachers prepare themselves for their work wholly in normal schools that require less than 120 hours for graduation, and are to be found not only in small high schools but also in some of the large city high schools as well. It must also be admitted that many high school history teachers who have formally complied with the approved standards of preparation for their work as stated above, are nevertheless failures. But in most cases inefficiency in history teaching is due to lack of adequate preparation, and the time has come when nothing less than the standards which have just been stated will be satisfactory. The demands upon the high school teachers are becoming more exacting and the study of history is becoming more nearly scientific, so that if history is to hold its own with the other subjects that are crowding our high school curricula, the educational institutions that undertake to prepare high school history teachers must see to it that such teachers are given opportunity to qualify themselves

according to the standards which have been defined by the committee on certification and approved by this committee.

Having put ourselves on record regarding the preparation that should be made by high school history teachers for their work, let us turn now to the other proposition which the committee have set for their consideration; viz., to what extent do those normal schools that definitely undertake to prepare young men and women for the task of teaching history in our high schools succeed in giving their students the preparation which complies with the standards just approved. Regarding this proposition the committee are compelled to state that in their judgment not more than fifteen or sixteen of the thirty-three normal schools reporting to the committee that they are definitely attempting to prepare high school teachers, are able at the present time to give to their students the sort of preparation that will conform in full to the approved requirements. In other words there are only 15 or 16 normal schools that are offering the standard teachers' college course of 120 semester hours and that are giving in such a course 25 to 40 hours of college history.

This is at first glance a very unsatisfactory state of affairs. But those who know conditions in the normal schools and in the districts they serve, realize that things are not so unsatisfactory as they may seem.

In the first place, although only about one half of the normal schools now preparing high school teachers have four years teachers' college courses, there are many indications that most of the others will likely have such courses in the very near future. The most noticeable tendency in recent years among the normal schools that are given to the preparation of high school teachers has been the strengthening and the lengthening of their curricula. In fact most of the 15 or 16 normal schools that are now practically standard teachers colleges, have become so only in the last ten years. It seems safe to say that if the normal schools that are endeavoring to prepare high school teachers and that yet fall short of being standard teachers' colleges, are allowed to continue in their natural development unmolested by outside influences, it will not be many years until they will become such.

In the second place the normal schools that are doing only two or three years of teachers' college work are doing a very much needed service for the high schools in their districts. Unfortunately there are many high schools that are paying very meagre salaries for their teachers, especially their history teachers, and they cannot always command the services of the graduates of colleges or teachers' colleges. When conditions in our towns and villages change so that better remuneration will be given for high school instruction than is now generally the case, then better prepared teachers may be commanded, and the demand for better preparation on the part of the teachers will react upon the normal schools that are not yet standard teachers colleges, and will serve

to bring them up to that rank if they are but allowed to go on in their development unhindered. Until that good day comes, however, the normal school with the two or three years teachers' college course will continue to do a work for the small high schools of the country that no other institution can or will do, and due recognition should be given for this service.

An examination of the 15 or 16 normal schools which are virtually standard teachers' colleges, discloses the fact that in point of faculty, equipment, and course of study they compare favorably with the best of the regular colleges in their sections of the country, and that they are decidedly superior to a great many of these colleges. Only two or three of the 15 or 16 normal schools have less than two professors who devote most if not all of their time to the teaching of history and allied subjects of college rank, while many have three or four such professors. As to the preparation which these normal school professors have made for their work, there are very few of them who have done no post graduate work in history. Fully one half of them have the A. M. degree, and one half of the remainder have done graduate work beyond the A. M. degree.

The material equipment of these 15 or 16 normal schools for the teaching of history is apparently very good. In addition to maps and charts and well selected libraries, there are stereopticons and lantern slides in abundance in many of them, and in some, historical museums are beginning to be organized.

Most of the courses in history offered in these 15 or 16 normal schools are of a survey or general character, but every one of them also offers several special courses covering restricted fields. No one of these schools offers less than 25 hours of history and several offer 60 hours or more. All of them offer work in political science, political economy, and sociology, which ranges in amount from 10 to 30 hours.

There is one facility which every normal school has that is frequently lacking in the regular college, and that is the practice school or the training school. The importance of this facility was almost overlooked by the committee on certification of high school history teachers. In their report the subject was dismissed with a single short sentence to the effect that, "when a practice course can be arranged, the best results can be obtained." We wish to give greater emphasis to this matter than did the committee whose report has just been quoted. We hold that practice teaching under proficient supervision is not only desirable but practically indispensable in the preparation of teachers, not only for elementary grades, but also for the high school grades as well.

We wish also to insist that the normal schools that undertake to prepare high school teachers should maintain high school classes for practice teaching. As yet not all of the 15 or 16 normal schools that are practically standard teachers' colleges have such classes, but from present indications it will not be very

long until they will have them. However, it is decidedly better that a prospective high school teacher should have some experience in practice teaching, even if that work is done in the elementary grades, than not to have had any practice teaching at all. If the position that has been taken is sound, it then follows that the institution that does not offer its students an opportunity to do practice teaching under competent supervision fails in a very important matter.

In this connection attention should be called to the special emphasis that normal schools put in some form or other upon methods of teaching. In some of them this matter is dealt with directly in connection with the courses in history, and in others in separate courses on the teaching of history. It is rather easy to put undue stress upon methods and some normal schools have been charged, perhaps justly, with doing this very thing. But on the other hand many of the colleges have either ignored the matter altogether or have been content with a certain perfunctory effort which of course fails to be of any benefit to the prospective teacher.

In reaching the conclusions that have been set forth in this report, the committee have been guided by the idea that the whole field of preparing teachers for the public school work from the kindergarten to the high school inclusive, should be open to the normal schools. Some normal schools may by choice prefer to restrict themselves to the task of preparing elementary school teachers. That is undoubtedly the biggest field in education and is in no way inferior to any other; and every normal school worthy of the name will continue to render its larger service in that field. But the view is fast gaining ground that high school teachers receive the best preparation in those schools where elementary school teachers are also being prepared. A recognition of this principle is seen in the way the teachers' colleges that have been recently established in connection with universities are organized. Invariably they cover the entire field of education; they would fail in their mission if they did not do so. If it is right and proper that teachers' colleges connected with universities should cover the whole field of education, it is equally right for the normal schools and the teachers' colleges that stand alone to do so if they choose. The idea that high school teachers should be prepared in one sort of a school and elementary school teachers in another, is a vicious one. It tends to the "creation of different standards and ideals which result in a serious break in the spirit, the method, and the character of the work of the child as it passes from the elementary school to the high school." Moreover the preparation of elementary school teachers and of high school teachers in separate institutions begets a kind of educational caste which draws a rather definite line between the high school aristocracy and the elementary school commonalty. Such a condition ought not to exist, and it will disappear to a large extent wherever it does now exist, if whatever

restrictions imposed upon normal schools by legislation or by some outside controlling educational influences are removed and these schools are allowed to enter freely the whole field of education.

In conclusion the committee wish to express to this association their appreciation of the opportunity that has been given for making this investigation and submitting this report. The data they have gathered and on which they have based their report, are available for the use of all who may be interested in the subject.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

EDITED BY GERTRUDE BRAMLETTE RICHARDS, PH.D.

In the August "North American Review," Major-General Carter, U. S. A., discusses "Public Opinion and Defense" in a manner most gratifying to all pacifists.

Frank H. Simonds compares the present situation in the European war with the second year of the Civil War in his article, "Germany Loses the Initiative," in the August "Review of Reviews."

"The Sewanee Review" for July, 1916, publishes "The Beginnings of the French Revolution," a study of French characteristics as expressed then by Sedley Lynch Ware, and "Little Laughs in History," a delightful account of humorous episodes of more or less importance, by H. Merian Allen.

Students of agriculture will find much to interest them in the article on "Agricultural France and the War" in "La Nouvelle Revue" for June, 1916, by Senateur de la Côte-d'Or. The author considers the "associations syndicale" which he divides into two classes, free and authorized, as the backbone of French organization, and as the reason why France has been able to husband her resources so admirably.

Richard Washburn Child discusses "The Better-half of Russia" in a most entertaining manner in the August "Century." As the name implies, the article is a study of Russian women, especially of the third class, the "intelligentsia." The startlingly large proportion of these active, educated, self-expressive women of Russia, who have, from the middle of the last century, asserted their eagerness for professional training, have been given unusual opportunity for coming to the front, not as a part of a woman's movement, but as a part of a great human movement. And it is these women who to-day possess a vision calmer than that of the Russian men.

The leading article in "The Contemporary Review" for June, 1916, on "National Unity and the Coalition," by Sir W. Ryland Adkins, M.P., is a discussion of the position to-day of the Coalition Cabinet, "the only form of government which really reflects what is happening."

C. C. Pearson's article on "The Readjuster Movement in Virginia," in the "American Historical Review" for July, deals with the period between the end of the reconstruction movement and the beginning of the recent educational and industrial Renaissance. In this period, all Southern States experienced a series of independent political movements, more or less successful. The one in Virginia which centered around the State debt was especially interesting.

This debt originally contracted in the development of transportation, the accumulation of war and reconstruction interest, amounted to some \$45,000,000, and the State's assets amounted to \$10,000,000 in State bonds. According to the author, the most important results of the movement were the changes in the dominant party and the rejuvenation of the Republican party.

Miss Ruth A. Gallaher is continuing her studies of the relations between the Indians and Europeans in the "Iowa Journal of History and Politics" for July, 1916. This is the third of her articles on the Indian agents, and gives an unusually clear account of the relations between the two races. In Iowa the period of hostility was shorter than elsewhere, because there the pioneer days came when the Indians had become accustomed to removal. The greatest cause of difficulty, however, lay in the fact that both Indian agents and military officers not infrequently found themselves involved in expensive litigation because of their attempts to enforce the indefinite regulations of the department.

The letters of the elder William Byrd in the July number of the "Virginia Magazine of History" give glimpses of the quaint customs of the closing years of the seventeenth century, as well as of the interesting personality of the writer, who has been rather eclipsed by his more polished and courtly son of the same name.

The belated German periodicals give interesting points of view on the war. In the March "Deutsche Rundschau," Alfredo Hartwig discusses the effect of the war on the relations of Japan and North America, showing an understandable contempt for North American bankers and ironmongers.

Sir Guildford Molesworth's "Common Origins of the Religions of India," in the "Asiatic Review" for May, is decidedly worth reading. According to the author, the three leading religions of India, Hinduism, Buddhism and Mohammedanism, all debased and overlaid with various accretions of medieval growth, have a common origin, and, indeed, were originally identical.

The war articles in the current number of the "Atlantic" are especially interesting. Cyril Campbell's discussion of General Smuts's "Campaign in German East Africa" was written on the field. The author criticises Mr. Gladstone's "indecisive, vacillating attitude" in his foreign policies as the cause of the chief campaigns in Africa in 1914-15, resulting in "a meagre record of sporadic raids, isolated bush fights and attacks on block-houses, the results as a whole favoring the Germans." That the more recent campaigns have had a different outcome is due to General Smuts, the secret of whose success is the mobility of his army, which the author claims is the most diverse in organization since the barbarian invasions. T. Lathrop Stoddard's article on "Russia's State of Mind" in the same magazine characterizes Russian public opinion as complex and glaringly contradictory and vexed by many cross currents tending in radically divergent directions.

"One of the Garrison" publishes an intensely interesting and vivid account of the Irish situation in April in "In Trinity College During the Sinn Fein Rebellion" in "Blackwood's Magazine" for July.

Archibald Hurd's "Testing of the New British Navy," May 31, 1916, in the July "Fortnightly Review," claims that the moral victory of the British is everlasting, even though their squadrons were denied anything in the nature of a general engagement.

Thackeray's notes for an Essay on Napoleon are published by his daughter in "The Cornhill Magazine" for March.

Prof. W. P. M. Kennedy has an interesting brief account of "Richard Hakluyt" in "The Canadian Magazine" for March.

R. F. O'Connor's "Blessed Catherine of Racconigi" in the "American Catholic Quarterly Review" for April, is full of interest to students of fifteenth century history.

Louise Closser Hale's somewhat misnomered article in the August "Harper's," "We Discover the Old Dominion" (beginning a series) gives what purports to be an authentic account of the Barbara Frietchie incident.

"The Nineteenth Century" for July publishes "Neutrality in Northern Europe," by Rt. Rev. Bishop Bury, who gives his impressions received during a recent visit to Norway and Sweden. According to Bishop Bury, neutrality in Scandinavia is as unreliable as it has been in America. While it is hard to form a satisfactory opinion of the public feeling in either country, yet Norway's sympathy is generally for the Allies and Sweden's for Germany.

Reports from The Historical Field

Dr. W. S. McKechnie, the well-known author of the book on Magna Charta, has been promoted to a full professorship in Glasgow University, after serving for many years as a lecturer. The chair is one in Conveyancing, but as the feudal law still is in force in Scotland in land transfers, the field is near Dr. McKechnie's own interests.

"The Outlook for International Law" is the title of pamphlet No. 3, Vol. 6, of the publications of the World Peace Foundation. The paper is an address delivered by Elihu Root before the American Society of International Law in Washington, D. C., December 28, 1915.

"The Independent" for June 12, 1916, contains a number of replies sent in response to the following inquiries: "Of all you were taught at school, what has proved most useful to you in after life?" "What have you had to learn since leaving school that you might have been taught there?" The editors, in commenting upon the replies, state that they show "the impracticability of prescribing any single course of study as suited to all minds and future careers. Almost every conceivable study is mentioned among those which have proved most useful, and some inconceivable studies are mentioned among those most missed."

Brother Denis Edward, president of LaSalle College, Philadelphia, read a paper on Wednesday, June 28, before the College Department of the Catholic Educational Association meeting in its thirteenth annual convention in Baltimore, upon the topic, "The Scope and Value of History in Catholic Colleges."

"Five Hundred Practical Questions in Economics" will be published by D. C. Heath & Company for the New England History Teachers' Association. The questions were compiled by a special committee of the Association, con-

sisting of Winthrop Tirrell, High School of Commerce, Boston, chairman; Prof. Edmund E. Day, Harvard University; Horace Kidger, Newton (Mass.) Technical High School; Thomas H. H. Knight, Girls' High School, Boston; Margaret McGill, Newton (Mass.) Classical High School; Prof. Sara H. Stites, Simmons College. This publication will be sold at a very reasonable price. The Association hopes that the questions may tend to make the study of economics more practical and more interesting.

"The New Purchase," by B. R. Hall, describing life in Indiana and the Northwest before 1843, is being reprinted by the Princeton University Press with notes and introduction by Prof. James E. Woodburn, of Indiana University. The appearance of this work fits in well with the Indiana Centennial Celebration.

"Relations Between the United States and Great Britain," is the title of Hollywood Junior College Studies, No. 1, published by the Student Association of the Hollywood High School, Los Angeles, Cal. The pamphlet is the composition of a freshman college student, Miss Juliet Green, and is based upon official treaties and secondary historical material. It is an ambitious bit of work for a freshman girl and shows what results can be obtained from well directed instruction in the junior colleges.

A pageant by the Farm Clubs, of Anoka County, Minn., entitled, "The History of Agriculture," was given at Anoka on August 18-19, 1916. The book of the pageant by Roe Chase includes thirteen scenes each presented by one of the clubs of the county.

New York State, with nearly 600,000 foreign born whites unable to speak English and with 362,000 who can neither read nor write any language, has taken energetic steps toward Americanizing the alien. Preliminary surveys were followed up by the establishing of institutions for the preparation of teachers for foreigners. Two publications have also been issued by the State, entitled "Citizenship Syllabus" and "Rochester Plan of Immigrant Education."

A brief bibliography of books in English, Spanish and Portuguese relating to the Latin-American States has been prepared by Peter H. Goldsmith, director of the Pan-American Division of the American Association for International Conciliation (The Macmillan Co.). The bibliography contains about 300 references to recent descriptions and early works concerning these countries.

Prof. Robert McNutt McElroy, of Princeton University, will have leave of absence during 1916-17 to lecture in various Chinese universities at the request of the Chinese government.

Dr. Leonard P. Fox has been appointed instructor in the Department of History and Politics of Princeton University.

The American Political Science Review for August, 1916, contains a wide variety of contributed articles. "The Political Theory of the Disruption of the Scottish Church" is expounded by Prof. H. J. Laski. Charles H. Cunningham discusses the Origin of the Friar Lands Question in the Philippines, tracing the subject from the early settlement of the friars in the islands down to the period of American occupation. "Presidential Special Agents in Diplomacy" is treated by Henry N. Wriston; and "Problems of Percentages in Direct Government," by C. O. Gardner. Three papers upon the Initiative and Referendum are the work respectively of W. A. Schnader, Robert E. Cushman and F. W. Coker. The number contains the usual valuable bibliographical, personal and legislative notes.

HISTORY TEACHERS' ASSOCIATIONS.

Additions to and corrections of the following list of associations are requested by the editor of the MAGAZINE.

Alabama History Teachers' Association, T. L. Grove, Tuscaloosa, Ala., member of Executive Council.

American Historical Association—Secretary, Waldo G. Leland, Washington, D. C.

History Section of Colorado State Teachers' Association—Chairman, Prof. C. C. Eckhardt, University of Colorado, Boulder, Col.

History Teachers' Association of Florida—President, Miss Caroline Brevard, Woman's College, Tallahassee; secretary, Miss E. M. Williams, Jacksonville.

Indiana History Teachers' Association—President, Beverley W. Bond, Jr., Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.; Secretary, D. H. Eilsberry, Muncie, Ind.

Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers—President, Prof. L. B. Schmidt, Ames, Ia.; secretary, Miss Mary Kassan, East High School, Des Moines, Ia.

Jasper County, Mo., History Association—Secretary, Miss Elizabeth Peiffer, Carthage, Mo.

Kleio Club of University of Missouri.

Association of History Teachers of Middle States and Maryland—President, Miss Jessie C. Evans, William Penn High School, Philadelphia; secretary, Prof. L. R. Schuyler, City College, New York City.

Mississippi Valley Historical Association, Teachers' Section—Chairman, A. O. Thomas, Lincoln, Neb.; Secretary, Howard C. Hill, State Normal School, Milwaukee, Wis.

Missouri Association of Teachers of History and Government—Secretary, Jesse E. Wrench, Columbia, Mo.

Nebraska History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Julia M. Wort, Lincoln, Neb.

New England History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Mr. Horace Kidger, 82 Madison Avenue, Newtonville, Mass.

New York City Conference—Chairman, Fred H. Paine, East District High School, Brooklyn; secretary-treasurer, Miss Florence E. Stryker, State Normal School, Montclair, N. J.

Northwest Association of Teachers of History, Economics and Government—Secretary, Prof. L. T. Jackson, Pullman, Wash.

Ohio History Teachers' Association—Chairman, Wilbur H. Siebert, Ohio State University, Columbus; secretary, Miss A. P. Dickson, Dayton.

Political Science Club of students who have majored in history at Ohio State University.

South Dakota History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Edwin Ott, Sioux Falls, S. D.

Tennessee History Teachers' Association—Secretary-treasurer, Max Souby, Murfreesboro, Tenn.

Texas History Teachers' Section of the State Teachers' Association—President, Frederic Duncalf, Austin, Tex.; Secretary, L. F. McKay, Temple, Tex.

Twin City History Teachers' Association—Secretary, Miss Amanda Sundeen, 2828 South Girard Avenue, Minneapolis, Minn., teacher in West High School.

Virginia History Teachers' Section of Virginia State Teachers' Association—President, Prof. J. W. Wayland, Harrisonburg, Va.; secretary, Katherine Wicker, Norfolk, Va.

BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

WHITE, ALBERT BEEBE, AND WALLACE, NOTESTEIN. *Source Problems in English History.* (Harper's Parallel Source Problems.) New York: Harper & Brothers, 1915. Pp. xv, 422. \$1.30.

Such is the modesty of the editors in explaining the aims and scope of this work, that from the Preface one would suppose that here we have merely a Source Book arranged topically instead of chronologically. This, however, is not the case. We find eight important topics, each of which is skilfully prepared for the student under the following heads: The historical setting of the problem; introductions to the sources; questions and suggestions for study; the sources.

Mr. White is responsible for the problems entitled "Alfred and the Danes," "Origin of the Jury," "Some Antecedents of the House of Commons," "An Aspect of the Fourteenth-Century Labor Problem." Mr. Notestein for the latter four, namely: "Freedom of Speech Under Elizabeth and the Stuarts," "The English Parish and the New England Town-Meeting," "Beginnings of Peace Negotiations with America," "The Parliament Act of 1911."

This collection of source problems, together with the similar collections for medieval history and the French Revolution, promise much for the better training of students in historical technique. Not merely will the instructor in the small college, whose library facilities are limited, welcome this addition to his resources, whereby he has access, as it were, to large expensive sets; but any instructor, wherever he may be located, may well find a place for such a work which he can put with confidence into the hands of his students as a sure guide to lead them directly to proved exercises in historical criticism.

An appendix, containing certain standard documents of constitutional significance, adds to the usefulness of the book.

HENRY L. CANNON.

Stanford University.

HOGARTH, D. G. *The Ancient East.* Home University Library. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1915. Pp. 256. 50 cents.

In this volume, the ninety-second of the Home University Series, D. G. Hogarth presents a comprehensive summary of the political history of the "East of Antiquity." The area surveyed and shown by sketch maps includes besides Egypt the territory in Asia Minor from the Hellespont to the salt deserts of Persia. The time covered is from about 1000 to 330 B. C. The plan adopted of taking a survey of the East every two centuries makes it something of a drama whose first four acts are named: The East in 1000 B. C.; The East in 800 B. C.; The East in 600 B. C.; The East in 400 B. C. The fifth is entitled, "The Victory of the West," and belongs to Greek history. Then comes an Epilogue, which the author says in his introduction is to enable readers to understand the religious conquest of the West by the East, a more momentous fact than any political conquest of the East by the West. The latter brought together the West and the East in such a manner that each learned of the other. There was a contact of Hellenic philosophy and eastern religiosity that resulted in the philosophic morality of Christianity, and made its westward expansion inevitable.

Teachers who know D. G. Hogarth's "Philip and Alexander of Macedon" will turn with interest to the last two

chapters and will pronounce them profitable. It would be hard to find, in any one book, more information, told more clearly and vividly. Altogether it should be classed among the best of this series.

VICTORIA A. ADAMS.

Calumet High School, Chicago.

MORGAN, JAMES. *In the Footsteps of Napoleon: His Life and its Famous Scenes.* New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915. Pp. 524. \$2.50.

This, we are informed, is Napoleon's story told against its true background, for, traversing in a five months' journey the regions over which Napoleon led his armies, the author sought inspiration for his biographical task in visits to scenes made historic by the man of destiny. Doubtless such a tour would kindle the imagination and might make the pen move faster, but it would not insure accuracy in the narrative. The material which this method brought to him bearing the label or the looks of history he has used indiscriminately and uncritically, so that his book is a commingling of fact and error, undistinguished for the reader. His test of the availability of a report and the value he sets on the historian's critical attitude are disclosed in his statement on page 42: ". . . if it is too good to be true, it is also too good to be spoiled by sceptics who have no story to take its place." Any one of the older biographies of Napoleon—Johnston, Fournier, Rose—is of greater value for high school pupils.

ELLIOTT, EDWARD. *American Government and Majority Rule.* Princeton: The Princeton University Press, 1916. Pp. 175. \$1.25.

No new message is attempted in this volume. It is an interestingly written commentary on certain phases of politics by one of moderately progressive views. The title leads one to expect a discussion of present-day political propaganda, but the chapters deal primarily with the conditions of settlement in the colonies, the Whig doctrine of checks and balances, Jeffersonian theories of government and the influence of the idea of equality. About forty pages are devoted to a discussion of the movement for direct primaries, corrupt practice acts, registration laws, initiative, referendum and recall, commission government for cities and the short ballot. The last receives the author's support, as does the recall at least as applied to city officials. The initiative and referendum are asserted to be "losing ground in the States where they have been adopted."

The need of our State governments, it is maintained, is for an increase of executive authority under a "cabinet system," but this is only in the form in which it "has proved acceptable in the national government." The author asserts that if one of the houses of the legislature were abolished, and the governor given control over the State executive officers with the power to frame, introduce and advocate bills, "it would be possible for the voter to enforce responsibility upon" the executive or legislature, or both. How this could be done is not explained. Many will doubt whether this scheme would give truly "responsible" government.

The small space devoted to present-day developments is disappointing in a book under the title this volume bears. It necessitates that the features of the struggle for majority rule in the American governments be dismissed with little more than mention. The statements are so compressed that they often lack clearness and sometimes have a finality which many readers will feel the facts do not justify.

CHESTER LLOYD JONES.

University of Wisconsin.

ABBOTT, JAMES FRANCIS. Japanese Expansion and American Policies. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1916. Pp. viii, 267. \$1.50.

In this little book Professor Abbott states the facts which lead him to believe "that war between Japan and America during the present generation is a most unlikely contingency." In the first three chapters he gives an excellent brief historical resume to enable the reader to understand what follows. Then in five strong chapters he gives the arguments and evidence to back his conclusion "that war with America would be national suicide for Japan." First he takes up the Philippine question, and shows that it would be far more profitable for Japan to deal with the islands as a foreign power and do a good business with them than to try to overdo this trade by forced control. Then he describes Japan's economic evolution, showing that Japan is now in the midst of an industrial revolution. It is significant that America is the only country with which Japan has a large and favorable balance of trade, i. e., from all other countries with which she has much trade she imports far more than she exports. United States is Japan's best customer, and some articles which she gets from United States can not be secured as cheaply or conveniently elsewhere. Japan has a gigantic debt, and has difficulty to make ends meet now. She has great interest payments to make abroad and seldom a favorable balance of trade with which to do it. It would be folly for her to fight her best customer. In the sixth chapter Professor Abbott takes up the "yellow peril"—the danger of Japanese and other Oriental immigration. Here he discusses very fairly the great reasons underlying dislike of Oriental immigration not only into our Pacific States, but also British Columbia and Australia, and tells what has been done. Then he goes on to discuss the chances of war, drawing conclusions from his data and summarizing.

In the last three chapters the author shows clearly Japan's imperative need for expansion on account of her growing population, and that the natural and desirable field for it is Manchuria. He believes that Japan wants to avoid any trouble with the United States, but is in an adolescent stage of development, and is very sensitive, much as America was in the early and middle nineteenth century. He pleads for recognition of Japan's aspiration as an Oriental power with her own Monroe Doctrine similar to ours, because he is convinced that this recognition will be very greatly to our own advantage.

This is an extremely readable and interesting as well as informing book, and should have a wide circulation. The author's style is very clear, and he gives excellent summaries at the close of nearly every chapter. The book is well suited to the more mature high school students, and will be a very helpful reference book where much attention is paid to recent American history and modern world politics.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

Ohio State University.

ASHLEY, ROSCOE LEWIS. Medieval Civilization, a Text-book for Secondary Schools. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915. Pp. xxi, 327-703. \$1.10.

This volume is intended primarily for a course on the later period of ancient history or for the first part of a course on medieval and modern history. It is a continuation of the author's "Ancient Civilization," and covers the period between 376 and 1648 A. D. The first chapter in this volume is numbered XIV and the first page 327. The book is divided into three "Parts," numbered IV, V and VI. Part IV, "Transition from Ancient Times," covers the period from 376 to 900. Fifty-one pages are given to this

part. Part V, "The Feudal Age, 900 to 1450," is discussed in six chapters and 150 pages. Part VI, "Transition to Modern Times, 1450 to 1648," has five chapters and about 100 pages. Two "Supplementary Chapters" are added, "Constitutional Development in England Under the Stuarts" and "Absolutism on the Continent of Europe." The appendix has a table of sovereigns of the more important countries, a history correlation outline, containing definitions or explanations of important terms, and the outline of ancient civilization. Sixteen maps are given, eight of which are full-page colored maps, one a double-page colored map, and the others are in the text uncolored. Some eighty-two illustrations are listed, some of which are full-page.

This book, as indicated by its title, is intended to be somewhat different from the usual textbooks on European history. It aims to stress social and economic changes and conditions. Almost one-half of the book deals with such material and only some 175 pages to the usual narrative. The author admits that "Details of the narrative have necessarily been omitted in the discussion of many subjects," but justifies the omission on the ground that "each teacher will wish to place emphasis on different details, and as there are numerous excellent textbooks and books of reference, this supplementary work can be done without difficulty by collateral readings. On the contrary, most of the material on business and the life of the people cannot be found easily elsewhere." He also says that he "has tried to give correct impressions of events and changes rather than to describe them with literal accuracy, as literal accuracy is impossible in so brief an account. Even if it were not impossible, it would be undesirable, for an exact, detailed account would often render obscure the character and the meaning of the movement under consideration." These quotations indicate the chief characteristics of the book.

Two prime essentials of a good textbook, that it be interesting and teachable, are certainly exemplified in this book. High school pupils will enjoy it. The teaching helps are excellent, each chapter being followed by a list of general references, topics, studies and questions. The books referred to are, on the whole, books that are or should be in the high school reference library. The topics have more than one reference and call for more detailed work than the studies, which have usually just one reference and aim to bring out a brief report from the pupil. The questions are well selected and will be helpful to pupils and teacher.

WILSON P. SHORTRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis.

FLING, FRED MORROW, AND FLING, HELENE (DRESSER). Source Problems on the French Revolution. (Harper's Parallel Source Problems.) New York: Harper & Brothers, 1913. Pp. xii, 339. \$1.10.

The necessity of using source material in the teaching of history has long since passed the stage of argument. That students of history—even children in the grammar grades—should know something of the process by which the historian discovers truth is well-nigh commonplace. As Professor Fling says, instruction in historical method "may begin just as soon as the boy or girl is desirous of knowing 'if it is true' and 'how do we know that it is true.'" The great problem is not whether to use "the sources," but how to use them most advantageously. To the solution of this problem, the "Parallel Source" series has been a great contribution.

The volume under review presents four problems connected with the French Revolution: "The Oath of the Tennis Court, June 20, 1789;" "The Royal Session of

June 23, 1789;" "The Insurrection of October 5 and 6, 1789," and "The Flight of the King, June 20, 1791." Like the other volumes in the series, each chapter contains the historic setting of the problem, numerous parallel source accounts of the topic under investigation, a critical bibliography of the sources, and certain questions for study. A very helpful outline of historical method and an illustration of its application are supplied in the appendix.

Opinions no doubt will differ concerning the desirability of the particular topics selected for investigation; the reviewer thinks them admirable and believes none will question their value as exercises in historical method. The volume will take high rank in the series of which it is a member.

HOWARD C. HILL.

State Normal School, Milwaukee.

DUDLEY, E. LAWRENCE. Benjamin Franklin. SPRAGUE, WILLIAM C. Davy Crockett. HOLLAND, RUPERT S. William Penn. GILMAN, BRADLEY. Robert E. Lee. STAPLEY, MILDRED. Christopher Columbus. True Stories of Great Americans Series. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1915. 50 cents each.

These little books will increase the number of reference volumes in that field of elementary history where the supply is probably least adequate, viz., in the grammar grades. Small in size (ranging from 160 to 240 pages each), cheaply but neatly printed and bound, and elementary in style, they should find places in many school libraries where economy must be exercised in expenditures. Thus many a boy and girl to whom history makes little appeal will be stimulated to a liking of the subject by excursions into the adventurous lives of those who have helped to make history." That such books may serve the same purpose in the high school, and that they should be read by teachers, may safely be assumed.

The authors of this series adhere closely to the truth of history, but not all are natural writers of children's stories. In the "Christopher Columbus" the style is more spirited, and in the "Benjamin Franklin" it moves with less effort, than is the case in the other volumes. The story of Davy Crockett is as interesting as a novel. In all the volumes we find clearness, excellent arrangement of subject-matter, and comparatively little "moralizing." The illustrations, from six to twice that number in each volume, are practically all reproductions.

ALBERT H. SANFORD.

State Normal School, La Crosse, Wis.

TERRY, CHARLES S. A Short History of Europe. Vol. 3. From the dissolution of the Holy Roman Empire to the outbreak of the German war, 1806-1914. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1915. Pp. 602. \$2.00.

This volume is the third volume in a series by the same author and publishers. The first volume covers the period 476 to 1453; the second volume, 1453-1806; and this volume, 1806 to 1914, the outbreak of the great war. This is a clear, well-proportioned and readable account of nineteenth century Europe in some 635 pages of rather fine print. It has some fifteen pages of genealogical tables of the ruling houses of Europe. The next to the last chapter on "The Armed Peace" and the last chapter on "The Coming of War" are particularly interesting at this time, although, of course, written from the English viewpoint.

It is not a book that teachers would want to require high school students to use extensively, perhaps, but it is a good book for the teacher, particularly the last two chapters.

WILSON P. SHORTBRIDGE.

North High School, Minneapolis.

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 German-American Hist. Soc. of Illinois. Fifteenth yearbook of the society, 1915. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago. 382 pp. \$3.00, net.
 Gray, Lewis H., editor. The mythology of all races. In 19 vols. Vol. 10, North American. Boston: Marshall Jones Co. [212 Summer St.]. 325 pp. (11 pp. bibl.). \$6.00.
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U. S. President, Woodrow Wilson. *Relations with the German government. [Address delivered at a joint session], April 1, 1916.* 9 Wash., D. C.: Gov. Pr. Off. 6 pp.

Urquhart, Frank J. *A short history of Newark.* Newark, N. J.: Baker Pr. [251 Market St.]. 182 pp. 75 cents.

Vespucci, Amerigo. *The Soderine letter, 1504, in fac-simile.* Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 36 pls. 75 cents, net.

Wisconsin Com. on Civil War Records. *Wisconsin losses in the Civil War.* Madison, Wis.: State of Wis. 343 pp.

Wise, Jennings C. *The long arm of Lee. [History of the artillery of the Army of Northern Va.]* In 2 vols. Lynchburg, Va.: J. P. Bell Co. \$4.50.

Wood, Maj. Gen. Leonard. *Our military history.* Chicago: Reilly & Britton. 240 pp. \$1.00, net.

Woodburn, J. A., and Moran, T. F. *Introduction to American History.* N. Y.: Longmans. 308 pp. 72 cents.

Wright, Theo. L., and Hedges, M. H. *The Beloit [Wisconsin] pageant.* Beloit, Wis.: Beloit Daily News Pr. 46 pp. 15 cents.

Ancient History.

Boyd, Clarence E. *Public libraries and literary culture in ancient Rome.* Chicago: Univ. of Chic. 77 pp. \$1.00, net.

Gray, Lewis H., editor. *The mythology of all races.* In 13 vols. Vol. 1, Greek and Roman, by W. S. Fox. Boston: M. Jones Co. 354 pp. (18 pp. bibls.). \$6.00.

Hoffman, Samuel A. *A handbook of Greek and Roman history.* Chicago: Curtis Johnson Pr. Co. [1640 S. Wabash Ave.]. 112 pp. 75 cents.

Kuhn, Albert. *Roma.* In 18 pts. Pts. 14, 16. N. Y.: Benziger. Each 35 cents.

Legge, Francis. *Forerunners and rivals of Christianity. [Religious history from 330 B. C. to 330 A. D.]* In 2 vols. N. Y.: Putnam. 426 pp. 21 pp. bibls.). \$7.50, net.

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Plutarch's Lives. With an English translation by Bernadotte Perrin. In 10 vols. Vol. 3, Pericles and Fabius Maximus; Nicias and Crassus. (Loeb. Class. Lib.) N. Y.: Putnam. 442 pp. \$1.50, net.

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Henderson, Ernest F. *A short history of Germany.* In 2 vols. [New edition with additional chapters.] N. Y.: Macmillan. 517, 604 pp. \$3.50, net.

Herbert, Sydney. *Modern Europe, 1789-1914.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 256 pp. \$1.00, net.

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Smith, G. Burrell. *Outlines of European history, 1814-1914.* N. Y.: Longmans. 267 pp. 75 cents, net.

Wright, Charles H. C. *A history of the Third French Republic.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin. 197 pp. \$1.50, net.

The War.

Bryce, James, Viscount. *The attitude of Great Britain in the present war.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 28 pp. 10 cents, net.

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 Emerson, Edwin, Jr. *The destruction of Louvain.* Chicago: Germanistic Soc. of Chic. 23 pp.
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 Reynolds, Francis J., editor. *The story of the great war.* In 5 vols. Vols. 1, 2, 3. N. Y.: P. F. Collier & Son. 3261 pp.
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 Seymour, Charles. *The diplomatic background of the war, 1870-1914.* New Haven, Ct.: Yale Univ. 311 pp. (7 pp. bibls.). \$2.00, net.
 Toynbee, Arnold J. *Armenian atrocities.* N. Y.: Doran. 117 pp. 25 cents, net.
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The History Teacher's Magazine

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